

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 30, 1877.

The Week.

THE first resolution of the Pennsylvania Democratic Convention was the one which appears to be printed from a stereotype plate at all Democratic gatherings nowadays, and which, after mentioning the great crime perpetrated at "the induction of Rutherford B. Hayes into office," declares that no second offence of the same kind will ever be tolerated. The second and third resolutions assert that the Southern and civil-service policies of the President are tributes to Democratic principles; the fourth, "that capital combined in corporate organization has been too highly favored by both State and Federal legislation"; the fifth opposes any increase of the standing army; the sixth was prepared on account of the late strike, and, although somewhat vague, manages to express sympathy with "thousands of industrious citizens and laborers" now unemployed and in distress, and declares that a wise and frugal government is the hope of the people in adversity and their security in prosperity, and that under such a government any resort to force to redress grievances is needless; the seventh we have elsewhere discussed; and the eighth looks towards State control of railroads. Resolutions in favor of silver and greenbacks as legal tenders, and advocating payment of United States bonds in legal tenders, were presented, but not received. The convention said nothing about resumption, or the currency, or the tariff, and was evidently under very different influences from its fellow convention in Ohio. There is said to be a good prospect of Democratic success in Pennsylvania this year, the Cameron Republicans being willing to allow the State to be carried by the Democrats as a rebuke to Mr. Hayes. The Republican Convention is yet to be held, but we suppose it is useless to expect that any political convention will this year pass straightforward resolutions with regard to the strike and the rioters. Even the lesson of Pittsburgh fails to make Pennsylvania politicians speak plainly.

Mr. Randall is a good politician, and the unanimity with which conventions of both parties are pronouncing against all subsidies is accordingly having an excellent effect upon him. It is now reported, apparently upon authority, "that he has never expressed himself specifically upon the subject of appropriations and subsidies"; and that "he only favors in a general way the building up of the South generally, and the general development of its general resources." This very "general" denial can be converted by the time Congress meets into a very specific one if Northern political conventions continue to express the decided disapproval of subsidy schemes which has thus far been a pleasing feature of their platforms. We should have greater present faith in the defeat of all subsidy projects at the coming session of Congress, however, if there existed throughout the country a firmer disposition to require politicians to abide by the party platforms in which they have pretended to believe at the time of their adoption. Ohio and Pennsylvania have both spoken in opposition to subsidies, and no Democratic politician in either State protested against the adoption of the resolution. If the rank and file of the party now hold their leaders to this professed faith, not only will numerous spoliation schemes be defeated, but, better still, we shall witness the beginning of a new and needed departure in party morality.

Mr. Williams, the Democratic candidate for Governor of Maine, has written a letter of acceptance which should have a wholesome effect, if anything can have, upon the Democratic party. The convention, in nominating him, passed the customary Democratic resolution with regard to the election of the President. Mr. Williams, in his letter, simply remarked that he did not understand this resolu-

tion to impeach the validity of Mr. Hayes's title to the Presidency, and that he could *therefore* approve the resolution. "That title," he adds, "though stoutly contested, was recognized and became valid by the decision of the tribunal which acted under authority of law, to which all parties and all the States, through their Senators and Representatives in Congress, had given their deliberate assent." This irrefutable proposition has occasioned a storm of angry comment in some of the Democratic papers, although it receives approval in others. The letter has been the means of showing that, in the opinion of some of its leaders, no possible good can come to the Democratic party from any further prolongation of the cry of "fraud" and "monstrous crime"; and its general effect must be to put an end to a great deal of vague and useless declamation on this subject.

The Ohio campaign was opened by the Democrats at Columbus on Thursday last. Mr. George H. Pendleton and General Thomas Ewing were the speakers, and the currency question their principal theme. They sustained their own characters and that of the Ohio Democracy as the most incorrigible advocates of "soft money" and the most dangerous assailants of the public credit between the two oceans. Mr. Pendleton, indeed, dealt a heavy blow at the Ohio Republicans for their fast-and-loose policy on the labor question, showing that their promise to secure fair returns to capital and fair wages to labor through legislative action is impossible of fulfillment and contrary to the whole spirit and genius of our institutions. He then turned violently against the "money power," and exhausted the dictionary to find words of opprobrium for the bondholders and the Resumption Act. He maintained that the 5-20 bonds were legally payable in greenbacks, and that the policy pursued by the Government of paying them in gold had added eight hundred millions to the burden of the public debt. General Ewing was even more rabid against specie resumption. He was opposed to resumption in 1879 or at any other time. He declared that greenbacks were better than gold, and that the latter was the most unstable of all commodities, and hence the most unfit to be used as money, being nothing better than a cheating device to rob labor of its hard-earned wages. Were not the times better, he asked, between 1865 and 1868, when gold stood at a high premium, than now, when it stands at a low premium? The panic of 1873 he considered a temporary disturbance, the effects of which had long since passed away, all the business depression since then being due to currency contraction. The commercial crisis in Germany he attributed to contraction also, and the depression in England to the impoverishment of her customers who have been ruined by contraction. The only remedy for the hard times, in his judgment, was to banish for ever the thought of specie and to sweep from power all who harbor the idea of resumption. It is with such pernicious folly and knavery as this that the Democrats in Ohio are accustomed to transcend the blunders of their antagonists. The Republicans set out with a platform and a couple of speeches which, standing by themselves, would have deserved heavy punishment at the polls, but candor compels us to say that they have been over-matched by the other side.

The first address of Mr. Stanley Matthews in the Ohio campaign is remarkable chiefly for what it does *not* contain. It omits all reference to the labor question, and unless Mr. Matthews regards the subject as too big to handle in the same speech with other matters, and intends therefore to consider it fully hereafter, the omission must be pronounced a grave dereliction of duty in one who is regarded as the father, or at least the foster-parent, of the National Bureau of Industry. For the rest, Mr. Matthews has the hardihood to discuss at great length the President's title to his office, and incidentally to descant upon the enormity of the attempt to count the vote of Cronin, of Oregon, for Mr. Tilden. He ably defends the President's Southern policy, and also his methods

of civil-service reform, and his address would have been stronger had all but these portions been omitted. The conclusion is an argument in favor of the legal and moral right of the Government to pay bondholders in silver, with an admission of the possible inexpediency of so doing, and a plea for the remonetization of silver, as the demand of "justice, sound public policy, and the indispensable condition and only safe road to resumption."

The Georgia Constitutional Convention has excited a great deal of attention as the first purely "Confederate" body to engage in constitution-making since the civil war. It finished its labors and adjourned last Saturday, after a continuous session of six weeks. A summary of its proceedings shows a curious mixture of good and bad provisions adopted, and an evident lack of any controlling mind or minds strong enough to give unity to the result of its deliberations. The constitution finally proposed by it is an illustration of no theory or system of legislation or government, but a hodge-podge of decisions on practical matters. Among the provisions which may be regarded as good are those affecting the negro, whose civil rights are explicitly secured to him. Other commendable provisions are the abolition of imprisonment for debt; the public-school system, which is limited to the elementary branches of an English education; the tax-paying qualification for voters, which, of course, will practically for a time disfranchise a great many of the negroes; a system of registration for voters; biennial instead of annual sessions of the legislature; and the prohibition of State aid to various enterprises. On the other hand, bad, or at least questionable, provisions were the following: the reduction of salaries of State officers and judges; an increase in the number of elective officers, including judges and solicitors-general, who are now appointed by the governor, but are hereafter to be elected by the assembly, and the choice of all State-house officials by the people; a shortening of the terms of service of State officers; and State regulation of freight and passenger tariffs of all railroads. The refusal of the convention even to allow the legislature to grant permission to the Supreme Court to decide upon the validity of bondholders' claims against the State, we have already mentioned. The new constitution will be voted upon in December.

We trust that there is some chance of this instrument being defeated at the polls. The provisions for repudiating the State debt and those placing the railroads in the power of the legislature are reason enough for opposition to it from independent men, while the Republican vote is likely to be cast against it on party grounds, and it will be opposed by present State officials and members of the Legislature. The newspaper replies to the arguments of the bondholders furnish curious illustrations of the state of mind existing in Georgia as to the public credit. We alluded a short time since to the well-settled principle of public law and morals that for purposes of credit the government of a State is continuous, as showing how preposterous the argument was that the State bonds were invalid because the carpet-bag governments were "usurpations." Now, it seems hardly credible, but the reply to this made by the Georgia press, and made in such a way as to show that in Georgia it is thought a "clinger," is that the United States, in calling upon the rebel States at the close of the war to repudiate their war-debts, violated this same principle of public law and morals; in other words, the United States compelled us by superior force to cheat some of our creditors, therefore we can cheat anybody we choose. It is, of course, apart from this, obvious that the two cases are entirely different. The insurrectionary government in Georgia which contracted a war-debt was never a State government in the proper sense of the word, and was never recognized as such anywhere, and its war-bonds were in rank but little above Cuban or Fenian securities. The carpet-bag government was, on the contrary, to our shame be it said, the legal government of the State, recognized by the United States, and possessed of full powers as such. We have received a private letter from a gentleman in Florida, which he gives us permission to publish, in which he suggests that any attempt to hinder immigration into the repudiating

States on the ground of their bad faith would probably fail, because the prospect of light taxes caused by repudiation would attract immigrants of a certain class. So, too, no doubt, the repeal of all laws against larceny would attract immigrants of another class, and the exemption of all property from seizure for debt would attract others. But we very much fear that in the end a community built up by means like this would not have that reputation abroad which would give its bonds a good standing in the money markets of the world.

Senator Christiancy has written to the *Inter-Ocean* a letter on "the dollar of our fathers," in which he exposes several of the fallacies of the silver men very clearly; shows that the dollar of our fathers could not circulate with gold, being of less value; that it would drive gold out of the country, and lead to great dishonesty if made legal tender, because it would enable all debtors to discharge their debts in a depreciated currency. He declares himself in favor of remonetization, however, provided some means can be found for establishing a fixed relation between silver and gold. He does not believe in the proposed international standard, because he does not think, with the constant fluctuations in the market, that any fixed standard could be arrived at in any reasonable time. His own plan is to have free coinage of silver, and to have the metal made legal tender to any amount at the market value, providing a board for the "determination and publication of this value at short intervals." As an alternative plan, he suggests increasing the value of the silver dollar (by the addition of silver) to a point where it should be so nearly equal to gold in actual value that for purposes of circulation they would be equal. Senator Christiancy's exposition of the economic principles that underlie the silver question is very good, but his plan for its solution strikes us as radically wrong. The "board" he suggests would either determine the ratio of the two metals by actual value or it would not. If it did not, it would introduce confusion into the whole financial system of the country; while for a faithful and just performance of its duties it would require a degree of sagacity and integrity which no other "boards" seem to be in these latter days provided with. The members would always be subject to suspicion; and if they did not play into the hands of the silver men, a movement would be at once started to "capture" them. The difficulty with the other plan is that there is and can be nothing fixed about it.

Great speculative activity has prevailed during the week in Wall Street, and resulted in an advance of 1 to 8 per cent. in the prices of railroad shares, stocks having been bought by wealthy speculators, and having been sold to a large extent by the public, which sees in past railroad mismanagement and in the threatened regulation by Congress of railroad affairs little to encourage it to hold this kind of property, even though the tonnage of the roads during the coming winter should be never so large. The enlarged borrowing demand for money with which to carry stocks, together with a fuller mercantile demand, have advanced the rates for loans 1 to 2 per cent., and discounts were increased to about the same extent. The New York banks are not nearly in so good a position as last year to meet the autumn and winter demand for currency from the West and South respectively, and bankers generally expect a full 7 per cent. money market by October. The price of gold (in paper currency) fell during the week to 103½—the lowest price since June 5, 1862; or, properly stated, a U. S. legal-tender note for one dollar advanced in gold value to \$0.9626, which is the most that it has been worth in the money of the commercial world since a short time after the suspension of specie payments by the Treasury. The bullion in a 412½-grain silver dollar at the close of the week would have had a gold value of \$0.9049. The fall in the price of gold, as it is called, was influenced by shipments of \$2,500,000 "double eagles" from London to New York, which are now on the way. Since they started, the Bank of England has advanced its discount rate to 3 per cent., notwithstanding which, and the fact that our imports are increasing more rapidly than our exports, it is the opinion of

bankers that we shall import a considerable amount of gold from Europe before the close of the year.

The battle which has been raging in the Balkans for the possession of the Shipka Pass, the only important military pass in that section of the range, will undoubtedly rank among the most extraordinary combats not only of our time but of this century. What we know of it now is, of course, fragmentary. Whether the attack was made by the bulk of Suleiman Pasha's army, or only by its left wing, the right having crossed the mountains much further east and reached Bebrova—as communications from London and Vienna have it—it is still impossible to decide; nor is it clear whether the attack was begun on the 20th of August, as the first Russian bulletin seems to imply, or on the 21st, as reported by the excellent correspondent of the *London Daily News* at the Russian headquarters. Yet, however scanty and incomplete our sources of information still are, the more or less strictly official reports from the imperial headquarters at Gorní Studeni and the frequent telegrams of the *News'* correspondent, who was an eye-witness of one of the deadliest contests of the week, present together a vivid war-picture which, though reflecting chiefly the doings of one camp, does not fail to exhibit in brief yet distinct outlines those of the other, and allows us to form a transient opinion of the comparative merits and losses of the combatants. The correspondent also gives us a description of the scene of action, of the ground so obstinately fought for. According to it, the Shipka Pass is merely a track across a section of the ridge lower than the surrounding heights. The highest point of the road is flanked on either side by commanding mountain spurs, which break off abruptly to the north. They afford no access to the northern valleys, but offer positions whence to flank the central ridge, and possibilities of descending to and struggling through the intervening glens, climbing the steep slopes of the Shipka ridge, and attacking the road and fortifications on its summit.

We shall closely and exclusively follow the above-mentioned communications from the Russian side in presenting a brief summary of the events. On the morning of Tuesday, the 21st, Suleiman Pasha made an assault (or "renewed the attack") on the Russian position "with forty battalions." The Russians, then only 3,000 strong, exploded mines in front of their trenches just as the heads of the assaulting parties were massed on heights above them. The fighting continued when darkness had set in. The Russian loss was 200. On Wednesday the Turks erected two batteries of long-range artillery, and approached the Russian position through trenches, but their repeated assaults were repulsed with heavy loss, while the Russians suffered little. On Thursday the Turks opened fire at dawn, and it lasted with great violence till noon. They made desperate assaults from three sides, which were repulsed. In the evening there was a lull. The Russians were "beaten out with heat, fatigue, hunger, and thirst." Many "lay panting on the bare ridge swept by Turkish fire," while "others doggedly fought on down among the rocks, but were forced to give ground." At this juncture heavy reinforcements arrived under General Radetzky, passing under a galling fire; the Turks having worked around on both flanks, especially on the Russian right. Here the struggle was resumed late in the evening, and desperate fighting continued till midnight, when the eclipse of the moon stopped it. The Russian loss was "heavy," but reinforcements continued to arrive, and the defenders of the pass soon numbered 13,000. All their positions were maintained.

On Friday, the 24th, the Russians assumed the offensive with a musketry fire directed against a well-wooded position which flanked those on the road. The attack was here continued all day, but without effect, being answered by a galling fire. At noon a counter flank movement was determined upon. Two battalions advanced under a tremendous fire from Turkish mountain guns. Gradually the Turks removed their batteries, and finally the central peak of their position was carried with the bayonet. General Radetzky personally leading a part of the troops. The Turks in vain attempted

to retake the peak. From his front, too, General Radetzky forced them back. No guns, however, or captives were taken. The Russian loss on this day was estimated at one thousand five hundred killed and wounded. Fresh reinforcements were hurriedly arriving from more or less remote camps north of the Balkans. On Saturday fighting continued with terrible violence from nine o'clock in the morning till ten in the evening. Several powerful Turkish attacks were repulsed. The Russians lost thirty officers and four hundred men killed and wounded. In the night the Turks renewed the assault with fresh troops, and the combat continued to rage all Sunday morning, the commander of the defenders of the pass before Radetzky's arrival being among the killed. The Turks continued the attack throughout the day, and resumed it on Monday morning, holding the heights above the road, and continually relieving each other in fighting. Here the last-received Russian report leaves us. Whether the concurrent announcement by English correspondents from Shumla of a more or less final victory of the Turks on the evening of Monday was true or not our readers will probably have learned before receiving these lines.

Simultaneously with the first attack on the pass, the Turks, as a Russian bulletin announced it, made attempts to break in upon the Russian outposts on the side of Selvi, Rastchuk, Rasgrad, Shumla, and Eski Juma. Near Selvi the troops of Osman Pasha's command were easily repulsed, the Russians report, but in regard to the result of the other engagements the accounts from the same source are silent, while Mehemet Ali's bulletins claim a number of successes. As to the fight near Eski Juma, the Russians concede the victory to their enemies. It was a protracted contest of some magnitude. The Turks seem to have been the assailants on Wednesday, August 22, advancing on Aghasar, northwest of Osman Bazar, and near the head-waters of the Black Lion, probably with the object of scenting their right flank for a possible advance toward Timova on the high road running further south. Aghasar was taken with some guns, etc., and, according to the Russian version, retaken. Skirmishing continued throughout the night, and on the morning of the 23d the Turks, having been reinforced, made new attacks which ended with the retreat of the Russians, in a northwesterly direction, to Sultan Köi. The latter acknowledge a considerable loss. The Turks on Thursday entrenched themselves at Aghasar. Osman Pasha, previous to the movement near Selvi, obtained some successes over the cavalry which was operating in his rear, one of the fights taking place on the road to Orhanie, the continuation of which leads across the Balkans to Sophia. In the Dobrudja the Russians are fortifying Kustendje and other points, while nothing definite is heard about the Turkish movements in that quarter.

From the neighborhood of Kars, Mukhtar Pasha, on Saturday, Aug. 25, announced a victory obtained on that day over the army of Loris Melikoff, "having carried the heights of Kiziltepe during the night and repulsed three Russian attempts to retake them." The battle lasted till evening, "200 cannon being brought into action," and, according to Makhtar's report, the Russians were routed on the whole line, losing 4,000 in killed and wounded, while he lost 1,200. Despatches to the *London Daily News* from the Russian camp admit the capture of Kiziltepe and the terrible effect of the Turkish guns from the mountains, but assert the signal defeat of a desperate flank movement to capture Kurukdara. In the contest which raged near this place the Russians, according to the same despatches, lost two generals, eight officers, and 237 men in killed alone. That the battle was provoked by the Turkish commanders, and was fought almost on the very border of the hostile territories, and that the Russians, at Melikoff's central position, "had their tents loaded on wagons, ready to move," as is reported to the *News*—these are features of the newly-begun campaign in Armenia not at all apt to encourage expectations of Russian success. Before Batum, too, the Russians have met with a new, though slight, check. Tergukassoff, at the other extreme of that vast theatre of the war, is said to have received considerable reinforcements, while nothing is heard of the Turks in his front or rear.

A DEMOCRATIC OPINION OF SUBSIDIES.

THE platform of the Democratic State Convention of Pennsylvania is not a model of good English, nor yet a mine of political wisdom, but its seventh resolution embraces an important truth which deserves to be rescued from the verbiage and cant in which it is mainly lost. This resolution recites that many rich men, not content with equal benefits and equal protection under the law, have besought the people to make them richer by acts of Congress. Then comes a great outpouring of froth, in which the phrases "fearful commotion," "exclusive privileges," and "odious monopoly" resound like fog-horns at sea, and are to be understood by the laboring man as terrible assaults upon capital. But the conclusion of the whole matter is that the Democracy of Pennsylvania "protest against subsidies, land-grants, loans of the public credit, and appropriations of the people's money to private corporations, as legalized plunder of the tax-paying industries of the country." It is to be regretted that so fair a beginning and so respectable an end should have been so nearly smothered by the platform-makers. The particular subsidy which the Convention aimed at is sufficiently open to reproof without connecting it impliedly with the recent railway strike, to which it bears no relation whatever.

Nevertheless, the deliverance of the Pennsylvania Democrats must have put a considerable obstacle and an unexpected one in the way of the Texas-and-Pacific subsidy, since we find the immediate friends and supporters of ex-Speaker Randall now disclaiming for him any bias in favor of that scheme, although he had lately been quoted by a New Orleans paper, which had taken pains to "interview" him at his summer residence, as much impressed with the merits of subsidies in general and of Southern subsidies in particular. The Texas-and-Pacific party are understood, likewise, to have abated nearly one-half of their claim upon the consideration of Congress, and to be content with a Government guarantee on fourteen hundred miles of road, from Fort Worth to San Diego, at the rate of \$35,000 per mile; their former petition calling for \$40,000 per mile on this division, and \$35,000 per mile on twelve hundred miles of branches. Their amended petition calls for something less than fifty millions. It is sometimes advantageous for subsidy-hunters to apply for a larger sum than Congress is disposed to grant, for the purpose of compromising on a smaller one, and thus gaining the support of "moderate men." But while the sacrifice of the branches, if it be really intended to drop them, may secure some votes which would otherwise be lost, it will dampen the log-rolling ardor of certain sections upon which the success of the scheme was believed to depend. Representative Schleicher, of Texas, has allowed a Washington newspaper to say for him that the people of his district are indifferent to the Texas-and-Pacific Railway unless a branch should be provided for to the mouth of the Rio Grande. He also betrayed a disheartening lukewarmness toward subsidies in general. His declaration that Texas is not unitedly in favor of the undertaking was perhaps the heaviest blow the scheme had met with until the Pennsylvania Democrats pronounced against it. The chief promoters of the railway are Pennsylvanians, and one of the arguments they advance for a subsidy is that it will infuse new life into the iron trade by creating a market for rails, locomotives, spikes, etc. If Pennsylvania remains deaf to this appeal to her cupidity, it is difficult to see where the votes are to come from to pass the subsidy even in the abbreviated form of fifty million dollars.

In the *Nation* (No. 606) we showed that the very last thing the South stands in need of is a new route to the Pacific Coast, where there is neither a demand for her products nor a supply of anything she wants, and that the chief result and consequence of her support of this project, if successful, will be to give new power and influence to a band of Northern speculators, whose alliance heretofore has been with the oppressors and plunderers of the South, and who are now, with the carpet-baggers, suffering a common eclipse. Congress is to assemble within a few weeks, and the Texas-and-Pacific lobbyists will be in Washington, undismayed by the public disapproval of their scheme, and exasperated no doubt by the long delay

that has attended its consummation. It is necessary, therefore, to characterize it again as an unblushing attempt to swindle the whole people, and as fraught with far graver dangers than the loss of fifty million dollars to the Treasury. Not an argument has been advanced in its favor which will stand a moment's analysis. The South does *not* need a Pacific railway—certainly she does not need it sooner than she will get it by private enterprise. The construction of it will not furnish a market for her iron, because she does not make iron; nor for her food, because she produces no surplus of food; nor for her labor, because she has no labor to spare; nor for her cotton, because her cotton does not go that way. The North does not need another Pacific railway, because the existing one is sufficient to do the business. The country does not need it for purposes of competition, because Congress reserved the right to regulate the rates on the existing road. No industry can derive more than a temporary benefit from the disbursement of money to build it, and no argument can be founded on that view of the case that will not justify subsidies to the bottom of the Treasury and the end of the public credit. If the riches of Arizona in the precious metals are half as great as they are alleged to be, private capital, which has lately surmounted the Sangre di Cristo pass, at the highest railway elevation on the continent, to reach the San Juan silver-mines, will find its way to Arizona also.

A high degree of effrontery, joined to large experience in handling legislative bodies and thorough disbelief in their honesty, is the mainspring and motive-power of this claim for a subsidy. That there are men of good character in Congress laboring for its passage may be admitted—so much the worse for them; they are in bad company, and must expect to suffer in reputation accordingly. They are contributing, so far as in them lies, to re-establish the reign of adventurers at Washington, whose shamefulness during the past eight years is the one thing the country most desires to hide and bury in oblivion. These scamps have found cold comfort since Mr. Hayes came in, but they are bold enough to claim him as a friend, and to associate his Southern policy with the Texas-and-Pacific policy, as though an act of justice would not be complete unless accompanied by an act of spoliation. There is not the smallest reason to suppose that they have ever received encouragement from that quarter. It must be well understood by all persons in authority that the granting of this subsidy in whole or in part opens the door to innumerable others ranging over the whole field of speculation. That this is no exaggeration is attested by the fact that the Texas-and-Pacific claimants are always pointing to the older Pacific railways for a precedent and justification. These are really no justification, but rather the opposite; for if the Government has spent its money to attain a certain object—to wit, rail communication with the Pacific—and has attained it, that is the best possible reason for not doing it a second time. But the second transaction *would* be a precedent for subsidies generally, since the main thing in view here is not communication with the Pacific coast, but the promotion of local and private interests. With what whip are local and private interests to be scourged out of the lobbies of the Capitol after this principle has been recognized in the Texas-and-Pacific case?

WHY THE REGULAR ARMY SHOULD BE INCREASED.

WE have received more than one communication protesting against the notion that the labor question can be settled with "bayonets," which seems to some minds to be a corollary of our doctrine that the late riots show the necessity of an increase in the standing army. We have never proposed that the labor problem should be settled with "bayonets," and have never said one word which could suggest to anybody (unless perhaps a "silver man" fresh from the advocacy of "cheap money for the poor man") a connection between an increase in the army and the establishment of proper relations between employers and employed; and we are no more responsible for his inferences than for those of any other intoxicated person. What we have said is that the late riots, however they may have originated,

show that our present police force is not large enough or of the right kind at the points where property is accumulated in large masses, and where for that reason the dangerous class is most numerous; and that the most economical and effective addition we can make to this force is an increase say of 25,000 men to the regular army. The militia is not sufficiently well disciplined or organized, and, even if it were better disciplined and organized, cannot act quickly enough, inasmuch as even six hours' delay may enable a mob to take possession of a city, as at Pittsburgh, and destroy millions of property.

We will now explain, too, that in our humble opinion no solution of what is called the "labor problem" that the wit of man can devise, no arrangement of the relations of the employer and employed, however happy or effective, and whether voluntary or brought about by the interference of Government, will do away with the necessity for a powerful and ready police in a country so thoroughly committed as this is to vast manufacturing and commercial enterprises. The labor problem, whenever solved, will be solved only in the interest of the steady and industrious laborer who wishes to do honest work. To him it will bring relief, if it brings relief to anybody. It will do nothing whatever for the malingering, the drunkard, the spendthrift, the rogue, the lazy and idle and vicious thousands who every year, from one cause or another, lose their places on the ladder of life, and drop into the ditch to grovel in hopeless and often angry and venomous poverty. This class in modern civilization is very large. Education, and sound economical and social arrangements, can doubtless keep down its numbers, but there is hardly a family in the land which does not know from bitter experience that it would be impossible by any instrumentality of which we have as yet even dreamed wholly to extirpate it. There never was an army yet, however holy the cause for which it fought, and however high the spirit of the bulk of the men, which did not have its stragglers and deserters and shirks; and we have no reason to expect to see a society without dregs or "residuum," until we are able to lay our finger on the very springs of character, and shape a child's destiny in its cradle. In the purest and simplest days of New-England theocracy every town had its criminals and loafers and ne'er-do-wells, who had to be hanged, or whipped, or tied by the neck and heels; and yet these were supplied by its own scanty and God-fearing population. In our time, with our vast accumulations of wealth and population at particular points, our great cities have become reservoirs into which there flows from all parts of the country and from all parts of the world a steady stream of miscarriage and misfortune: of blameless men who have failed in everything and are embittered by it; of lazy men who have tried everything but industry, and against that have their faces set like flints; of visionaries who have their hearts set on a social state from which hard work will be banished, and who would wade through torrents of blood to realize it; and of disappointed schemers who, unstable as water, after many failures, have sunk into a dull and pertinacious hatred of the successful and of all the tokens of success. Every class and condition of society furnishes its contribution to this mass of envious discontent, and the laboring class, as might be expected, the largest of any. Preaching does not reach them, because they have a gospel of their own, and the advice even of the well-to-do only exasperates them; and no arbitration or legislation or equitable division of profits, which is based on the obligation of steady labor and of fidelity to engagements, can at all touch them. They naturally congregate most largely in the great cities, because it is there easiest to live by one's wits, and to find auditors for one's plaints; and it is in the great cities only that rioting is most effective for destruction and disorganization—that even half an hour's work by a well-led mob can dissipate a hundred fortunes and suspend great branches of production. To leave society exposed to such risks, through a sentimental horror of "bayonets," is to be simply puerile. With such inflammable materials as these at hand, it is madness to rely on a volunteer fire-department. We have given up the fire militia in nearly all our great cities; what good reason is there for

trusting to it as a protection against that other and even more horrible danger—mob violence?

The part the South has been taking in the discussion on this subject is not a little suggestive. The press and public speakers of that region have been all but unanimous in opposing any increase of the army for police purposes, and the reason is obvious. Of course, the South is just now sick of seeing soldiers acting as permanent police in ordinary times. But apart from this, the social organization of the South is still so simple, and the position of the owners of property there is still so masterful, that it has, properly speaking, no labor problem in the sense in which that term is used at the North, and is not likely to have any very soon. It is highly probable that for fifty years to come the laboring class at the South will continue to be black, and will become every year more manageable and efficient. Moreover, the South is not troubled, and is not likely to be very soon, with large cities and their attendant evils. Her manufacturing industry is small, and her population so scanty, and the temptations she offers to adventure so slight, that the shiftless and discontented drift away from her rather than towards her. Under these circumstances Southerners not only feel secure against strikes, but revel in the thought of the swift and summary fashion in which they would put down a riot with their local militia. Governor Wade Hampton, in his speech at the White Sulphur Springs the other day, gave strong expression to his feelings, and added, we have no doubt truly, that if Washington had been in any real danger during the late trouble, from no part of the country could a volunteer police have been poured in more rapidly or in larger numbers than from his own and other Southern States. But the South makes a great, though not unnatural, mistake in supposing that riot and the destruction of property on Northern railroads and in Northern cities are a purely Northern affair, and that there is no good reason why the South should be taxed for their suppression. As the Union now is, whatever deranges traffic, and thus shakes credit and infuses timidity into capitalists anywhere, is the concern of all parts of the country. No geographical or political divisions can possibly affect the commercial unity of a country like this. Men who plant and reap, and weave and spin, and buy and sell, no matter in what part of it they live, are interested in the strongest way in the security of property and the freedom of intercourse in all parts of it. One of the most serious mistakes made by the Republican party at the North during the late Reconstruction process lay in the belief of many of its members that the robberies and frauds of the carpet-baggers affected South Carolina and Louisiana and Georgia only, and that those who disliked the South could afford to smile over them. There are not many men now at the North who do not see that Southern poverty and depression have during the last ten years been a dead-weight on Northern enterprise, and that there was something almost insane in indifference to the fortunes of communities which either were or might become our best customers even if we had no political connection with them whatever.

EFFECT ON RUSSIA OF A DISASTROUS WAR.

PARIS, Aug. 9, 1877.

THE friends of Russia—and they are numerous in this country—have been thrown into a state of consternation by the news of the bloody battle of Plevna. Hitherto the fortune of war seemed to be completely on the side of the armies of the Czar. We had all read with admiration the details of the blowing-up of a Turkish monitor by a Russian torpedo-boat, the arrangements taken for the passage of the Danube, and the cool behavior of the Russian boats under the Turkish fire.

The storming of Nikopolis, the raid of General Gourko in the passes of the Balkans, the rapid movements of the advancing army, formed an extraordinary contrast with the immobility of the Turkish commanders. Few remembered that General von Moltke, in his letters on Turkey written so long ago, maintained that the best strategy for Turkey consisted in throwing her forces into the quadrilateral of Eastern Turkey, in allowing an invading army to cross the Danube, to enter the Balkans, and to advance towards Adrianople, and then to cut all its communications and isolate it in Rumelia. The reports of our military attachés represent the

Turkish commanders as rude and apparently lazy men, who smoke all day under their tents; but the fighting qualities of the Moslems make up for the deficiencies of their commanders, and the ideas suggested by Mitke are so simple that they can be understood by the coarsest minds.

The battle of Plevna has turned the scale; and the dismay of the Russians is probably all the greater because this battle was quite unnecessary. General von Krüdener showed too much contempt for his enemies when he threw his cavalry against the formidable entrenchments of Plevna. We have read with the deepest concern how regiment after regiment was decimated by the fire of the Turks, how the road to the Danube was soon covered with ambulance trains, how a panic spread among the camp-followers, and how, finally, the wounded were left to die on the road. The philanthropic mind of the Czar was certainly much moved by the harrowing incidents of this defeat and of this retreat, and from one end of Russia to the other the general enthusiasm has been changed into indignation and almost into despair. General Gourko has been obliged to retreat hurriedly towards the Balkans, in order not to find himself completely cut away. The tide of invasion which was setting towards Adrianople is retreating towards the Danube. Only a few days ago there were rumors of peace; it was thought that perhaps Russia, after her easy successes, would content herself with a new treaty of Adrianople.

All is changed now, and everybody feels that Russia is bound to avenge the defeat of Plevna, and that she must prepare for a difficult and perhaps a long struggle. Thus far all the efforts of Prince Gortchakoff had been directed to this point: he intended to give the war the character of a duel—to localize it, as the modern phraseology will have it. The war was to be eminently a Russian war; it did not concern either the rising and ambitious nationality of the Rumanians nor the Slavic nationality of the Serbs. Prince Gortchakoff foresaw that if the war altered too much the situation of Rumania, or if it took a Pan-Slavic turn, it would no longer be possible for Austria-Hungary to remain absolutely neutral. It was for this reason that the Russian commanders did not allow Prince Charles of Hohenzollern at first to cross the Danube with his army; for this reason that Prince Milan was not encouraged when he offered the Russians the scattered remnants of his army, which fought alone last year with Montenegro against the Turks. Prince Gortchakoff tried to *far da se*, to borrow the words of Charles Albert in 1842; but the *far da se* of Savoy was followed by the disaster of Novara, and Italy could not conquer her independence without the help of France. Perhaps it will be impossible for Russia to liberate the Christians of the East without the help of these Christians; Austria's neutrality was bought with the promise of keeping a belt on the Austrian frontier untrodden by invading or insurgent armies. This promise can hardly be kept now; and the chief result of the battle of Plevna will be to give ascendancy in Russia to the Slav party, to such men as the Grand Duke Nicholas, as Ignatieff, as Prince Tcherkassky.

There are probably serious reasons why Prince Gortchakoff has tried with so much care to localize the war and to furnish no pretext to those who would be inclined to make it a war of nationalities, a revolutionary war. These reasons are twofold; some depend on the foreign relations of Russia, some on her home policy. Once assume that Russia is obliged to take the lead of all the Slavic populations, and Austria will be obliged to withdraw from the alliance of the three emperors and to take measures for her own preservation. Already a mobilization has been decreed, and, though it will not be immediate, the army will soon be placed in readiness to occupy Bosnia, Herzegovina, and the approaches of the Austrian Empire. The Magyars, now so powerful in Trans-Leithania, will not allow Slavic demonstrations at Agram; the fear of Russian influence is so great at Pesth that the Hungarians have taken the side of the Turks, and are not concealing their sympathies with the enemies of the Cross. Once imagine great movements in Austria, and it is very doubtful whether England will long preserve her present attitude. England has heard and applauded magnificent speeches from Mr. Bright in favor of peace; her statesmen have shown great caution—Lord Salisbury has never led the Turks to think that England would recommence the Crimean war without France, and Lord Derby has been quite converted to the views of Lord Salisbury; but who knows if Lord Beaconsfield, who now preserves the silence of a sphinx, cannot by a few words change the whole current of public opinion in England? He knows well that below this current lie deep and strong undercurrents. The old passions of England are only dormant; her neutrality is the offspring of her isolation. She has for the last year been feeling the pulse of France and of Austria; the pulse of France beats no longer, but the pulse of Austria

is not quite dead. If Austria thought herself forced to act, all pacific phrases would soon be thrown to the winds in England, and the enthusiasm of the Crimean days would soon revive. This is the first danger of Russia.

I come now to the second, to the interior danger. The Crimean war produced a commotion in the whole Russian Empire, and the result of it was the emancipation of sixty millions of serfs. The Russian nobility had for years opposed this emancipation with as much energy as the slaveholders in America opposed the abolition of slavery. The misfortunes of the Crimean war showed that "something was rotten" in Russia, and the Czar forced emancipation on the nobility. What have been the results of the emancipation? What is really the state of Russia? Few indeed could well answer this question. The Russian peasant is now a free man, but Russia is still subject to absolute government; the Czar lives far away, out of the sight of his subjects, and what is there between him and his people? There is no representative of the people, there is not even any active or powerful representative of the nobility. There are many provincial and even communal institutions, *assemblées de noblesse* and *assemblées de paysans*; but there is nothing like a House of Lords, nothing like a House of Commons, no place where something like the voice of the country can be heard. Between the absolute ruler and the people there is an all-powerful administration, a sort of *mandarinate*, the *tehin*—a regular army of functionaries, uniformed, disciplined, many of them corrupt and much more anxious to obtain promotion than to administer justice or to promote the interests of the country.

The ancients often called the poet *vates*; he is the true prophet, he shows us where the spirit is moving. I have always looked for the real truth about Russia not in the *Golos*, or the *St. Petersburg Gazette*, or the conversations of the rich, cultivated Parisian Russians you meet in our drawing-rooms or at our watering-places, but in the works of Pushkin and of Turgeneff. I must confess that the novels of this last writer have always filled me with the most painful feelings. They are alarming; they open lights upon Russia which show us a world almost incomprehensible, a sort of chaos of weakness, of uncertainty—an ocean of feeble, irrational beings, led by instincts, sentimental and absurd, chivalrous and selfish at the same time—an undeveloped, child-like, feminine ideal. Read, for instance, Turgeneff's last book, a masterpiece as extraordinary as 'Smoke' or a 'Nest of Nobles' or 'Fathers and Sons.' How well named is this book—'Virgin Soil'! Here we are indeed in the virgin forest of the Russian soul—a soul that has only aspirations which it not merely cannot realize, but which it cannot even well define and classify. When you begin this book you cannot leave it, so powerful is the charm of the descriptions of nature, so natural the tone of the conversations, so irritating the perverseness of the actors. You cannot hate them; they are sphinxes, and they seem almost unreal. One feeling, however, pervades the whole book. You see clearly that the Russians, as soon as they have the beginning of cultivation, become dissatisfied. Dissatisfied with what? They hardly know themselves; they dare not say. Each individual feels the whole weight of absolute power, of an inquisitive police, of a crushing administration on his shoulders. Your generous, chivalrous, discontented Russian, with his head and his heart full of aspirations, is drawn away from those higher classes which lead a regular and selfish existence. He goes down to the people; he makes an idol of the millions who live in the snow, in the fields, in the dark huts, in the fumes of brandy and tobacco. The long-haired, heavy, pious Russian becomes in his eyes the representative of a better future; but what Turgeneff shows very well is that the idol does not understand the worshipper, nor the worshipper the idol. This religion of the Russian people leads some noble men and women to *simplify* themselves, as they say; they can only wear the people's clothes—they cannot force their own thoughts under the peasant's clothes. They wish to be dirty, to work with their hands, and to lead vulgar and squalid lives; by so doing they think themselves the martyrs of a noble and holy cause. But what good do they do? The people drag them down; they do not drag the people up.

These curious socialistic tendencies which are developing in the Russian universities are perhaps only the symptoms of some deep wishes and desires. The cultivated classes, which are not completely enslaved by the *tehin* and by their own privileges, are probably groping towards representative government. An unsuccessful war, new misfortunes like the fall of Sebastopol, would produce an inner commotion in Russia which would soon have effects on the interior government. On every account, therefore, the development of the Eastern question ought to be watched with the keenest interest.

Correspondence.

THE PREVENTION OF RAILROAD STRIKES.

I.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: When discussing the "Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers," in connection with the Boston & Maine strike of last February, the *Nation* in its issue of 23d March last used the following language:

"The Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers is, therefore, as we look at it, now engaged in its last and most useful work. It is driving our larger corporations into creating brotherhoods of their own, turning their present mobs of employees into a regular graded service, with its promotions, its life insurance, and its pensions. The men would then be tied to the corporations by something more than the payment of monthly wages; nor would they lightly sacrifice by joining in strikes what represented the accumulation of years of service. It is no part of our business to work out the details of such a scheme. We can only say that what Mr. Arthur and his associates have done, we believe that Mr. Vanderbilt, or Mr. Scott, or Mr. Chapin can do a great deal better. . . . If a few more strikes are necessary to start them in the work, we sincerely hope that Grand Chief Arthur may, with as little delay as possible, supply the needed incentives."

The "hope" expressed by the *Nation* in March was certainly realized in July: "the needed incentive" has been given, and we may now fairly expect to see the official heads of our great railroad corporations addressing themselves in earnest to the better organization of their corps of employees. It is surely needless to say that the present organization is essentially defective. This has been apparent for a very long time, and the recent troubles have only called public attention to things the existence of which was before perfectly well known to every one. They were discussed and the remedy for them pointed out clearly enough in the *Nation* last spring, and they are now receiving treatment at the hands of the politicians and their candidates. With the labor question as a whole I do not propose to occupy your space or to concern myself now. With that particular phase of it which is connected with the railroad system there are certain points to which it seems to me very desirable that the attention, not only of the railroad officials, but that of the public also should be called. This, too, can better be done now and through the public prints than presently in the formal reports of commissioners, for the obvious reason that people are just at present thinking of the subject, whereas three months hence they will almost certainly be thinking of something else. The politicians and candidates have also started off at such a tremendous gait that something ought to be at once done by some one to satisfy sober-minded people that the whole discussion is not to be another burlesque of every accepted social fact or economical truth.

In view of the recent proposal of the Ohio Republican Convention, endorsed in its full extent by the Secretary of the Treasury, that Congress should by law establish for the railroads *maximum* rates of charges to protect the patrons of the companies, and *minimum* rates to protect their employees; and then, as a necessary consequence, that it should fix the wages and hours of labor of the latter on a reasonable basis,—in view of all this it seems about time to recall the fact that the subject of the relation of railroad corporations to those they employ is not an entirely new one, and that experience has taught some lessons in regard to it which are not wholly unworthy of notice. The *Railroad Gazette*, for instance, has lately published in compact pamphlet form a lecture delivered no less than ten years ago by F. Jacquin before the *École des Ponts et Chaussées* at Paris, and which is a portion of the third chapter of the first part of that gentleman's work on French railroads. It is short and, read in the light of the discussion now going on, curiously interesting. It describes in detail the organization of the *personnel* on the *Chemin de fer de l'Est* of France, of which M. Jacquin was the traffic-manager, giving an account of the system of promotion, and of the provident and pension funds through which the interests of the employees of that company are identified with it. In 1869, before the French-German war, and at the time of which M. Jacquin speaks, the *Chemin de fer de l'Est*, be it remembered, owned over 1,750 miles of track, or only 75 miles less than there are now in the whole State of Massachusetts. It was represented by \$220,000,000 of securities, or \$50,000,000 more than the entire Massachusetts system at present. It earned \$12,000,000 a year, of which \$6,200,000 was profit; and it had in its regular employ 24,500 persons, or nearly 6,000 more than all the Massachusetts railroads now report. It certainly, therefore, was what we in this country are accustomed to refer to as "a monster corporation." It had passed through the "mob" phase with its employees, which had proved, as M. Jacquin assures us, one of the most perplexing

problems to which its leading officials had been obliged to address themselves. Having got through it—not, even in paternal France, through having recourse to Government—M. Jacquin in his lecture proceeds to describe the system which ensued. Though his description is not new, it might now be profitably read by every railroad manager in this country; and even those not connected with railroads, who have, merely as part of the public, felt or been made to realize the peculiar dangers and inconvenience attendant upon railroad strikes, could hardly fail to be interested in seeing how effectually a great foreign company guards itself against them. It does it, also, by actually making its employees, as Mr. Vanderbilt has recently expressed it, a part of itself. In so doing it affords a practical illustration of long standing of what might be expected if our great corporations would carry into effect the *Nation's* suggestion, that they should turn "their present mobs of employees into a regular graded service, with its promotions, its life insurance, and its pensions."

On this point M. Jacquin's language is peculiarly distinct. He says of the *Chemin de fer de l'Est*, "Let a place with a salary of \$480 or \$600 fall vacant and it will never enter into the mind of a head of a department to propose to fill it with a person theretofore foreign to the company; that place is assured to an employee of the next lower grade. The certainty that the company reserves for its entire force all advancements in salary and position which are produced yearly, appears to us to be one of the capital conditions of the organization of a great service." Nor does this idea of a service and an identity of interest stop here. A connection with his company becomes to the employee an estate almost; at least a family interest which descends to his offspring. Indeed, the companies regard the admission of the children of their employees into their service as one of the most important means of perfecting it. Accordingly "a family, the heads and children of which are attached to a company, considers its fortune as assured, and is exempt from the uncertainties of the future with regard to providing for the children. Sure of being able to embrace the father's calling, young people acquire a very characteristic, special aptitude. . . . The sons of employees are admitted into a certain number of offices at the age of sixteen. They are granted the uniform, and this favor has a great influence on their conduct."

Here, then, is a regular service, with its apprenticeships, its promotions, its uniform, and its fixed tenure of office. One feature only seems to be wanting, that of a regular increase of pay proportioned to the length of continuous service. This experiment, so far as I am aware, has been tried by a single company only, and by it but partially. It is borrowed from the extra-ration allowance of the United States Army. On the road to which I refer it is confined to engineers and conductors, but each employee of these two classes receives \$100 a year extra pay annually for each five years of consecutive service. A conductor, for instance, who has served for twenty-five years is entitled to wear on the sleeve of his uniform-coat five service-chevron, and his pay is raised \$100 a year for each chevron. The influence upon a body of employees of such a regulation as this hardly needs to be enlarged upon; it speaks for itself. Under these circumstances, service which has been performed is in itself an estate—an accumulation which the possessor will no more care to hazard lightly than he would house or land. To engage in a strike takes a man out of the service of the company. If he returns, unless the strikers absolutely succeed in dictating their own terms, he returns as a new man. His service-chevron are gone, and with them his service-pay. The accumulation of years is swept away. Accordingly, it is easy to imagine with what extreme reluctance all older employees, whose opinions must always be those which among their fellows carry most weight, will listen to a suggestion of a strike the success of which would reduce them to the level of new hands. There is excellent reason to believe that a regular increase by all railroad corporations of ten per cent. in pay for each five years of consecutive service in the same grade would not only put an effectual stop to all strikes among railroad employees, but, by giving increased stability and *esprit de corps*, would prove to the companies themselves a sound measure of economy. In the case of the company I have referred to, the total sum paid out by it annually in extra-service pay amounts to only \$5,000 a year. This comparatively trifling sum is, however, sufficient to identify closely two important classes of employees with the service of the corporation. Elsewhere the experiment may have been, and indeed probably has been, tried on a larger scale, and if it has, I should be glad to hear of the result. Meanwhile, as the *Nation* suggested a few weeks ago, it is probable that as soon as the present excitement dies away many of the leading

roads will increase or readjust their wages system. Instead of the usual five or ten per cent, all around, would it not be well, then, for these companies to establish the service principle, giving, we will suppose, to each employee an increase of ten per cent, for each five years of consecutive service already performed in the grade he then may hold, and promising a similar increase to all? It would be a good thing if the directors of some large corporation would have this problem practically worked out, in order to see what, in its own case, the additional annual burden of such an increase of wages would be.

The personnel of the company being organized and the pay for active service established, the next thing to be provided against is the sickness, death, or disability of employees. And it is in respect to this, or what he describes as the second period of the employees' connection with the company, that M. Jacquini's pamphlet becomes more particularly instructive to American readers.*

CHARLES F. ADAMS, JR.

QUINCY, MASS., August 27, 1877.

JUDGE DILLON ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Our attention has been called to an article in your issue of the 25d inst., entitled "The Charges against Judge Dillon." In this you allude to an expression contained in our letter to you on the same subject, published August 9, in which we say: "The statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd"; and contrast that statement with an extract from a letter written by one of us, dated January 19, 1877, adding in language more forcible than courteous that it is clear that either the above-quoted extract was untrue or that the letter of January 19 was false. We are surprised to find you also stating that you had seen the letter of January 19, thus showing that it was in your power to have published it in full. For had you done so it would have at once appeared that the inconsistency charged by you did not exist.

Permit us to make a brief reference to some of the facts of the case referred to—that of the Farmers' Loan and Trust Company, Trustee, *vs.* The Central Railroad Company of Iowa.

The decree of foreclosure and sale provided that the trustee should buy in the property for the benefit of the first, second, and third mortgage bondholders, and also for the unsecured creditors and stockholders.

Certain of the first-mortgage bondholders intervened and appealed to the Supreme Court of the United States, claiming that, by the terms of the first mortgage, such a purchase could be made for the benefit of the first-mortgage bondholders only, and also seeking a reversal of the decree for other reasons. A *supersedeas* staying the execution of the decree was granted by Mr. Justice Miller of the Supreme Court, February 16, 1876. A previous *supersedeas*, granted conditionally by Judge Dillon, had then expired by its own limitation, the requisite bond not having been filed by the appellants. In November last Mr. R. L. Ashhurst, of Philadelphia, on behalf of a committee of first and second-mortgage bondholders, who desired the execution of the decree, applied to have this *supersedeas* of February 16 vacated, and the appeal dismissed on technical grounds. The Supreme Court decided on December 18, 1876, that the *supersedeas* should be vacated, but that the appeal was regular. No order of that Court in conformity with this opinion was ever served on us until the 26th day of January last. This order left the trustee, the plaintiff in the case, free to exercise its judgment whether it would, as trustee for all the bondholders, execute the decree of the Circuit Court pending the appeal, in view of the complications which might arise should the decree finally be reversed by the Supreme Court.

It should be borne in mind, especially in view of your statement that all the bondholders desired the execution of the decree except those taking part in the appeal, that the holders of first-mortgage bonds to the amount of a million dollars, being more than a quarter of the entire issue, have never been heard from in the litigation, and that their wishes on the subject are unknown.

After the opinion of the Supreme Court had been read, but before any order in accordance with it had been served on us, the letter of January 19, 1877, to which you allude, was written. That letter is as follows:

NEW YORK, January 19, 1877.

R. L. ASHURST, Esq., 225 South Sixth Street, Philadelphia:

DEAR SIR: Your letter of yesterday is at hand, enclosing letterpress copy of an order of Judge Dillon, authorizing the notice of sale of the

Iowa Central to be published in the *Public*. I do not wish to be captious, but I am sure every lawyer will agree with me that orders involving such large interests, on which we are expected to act, should be served on us certified.

The same remark will apply to the order of the Supreme Court. We have been regularly served with a certified copy of the bond as filed, and an order of Judge Miller that it should operate as a *supersedeas*. Technically our hands are tied. The Clerk of the Court has sent me a printed copy of an opinion of the Court by the Chief-Justice, that the *supersedeas* should be vacated. Whether anything has since been done I do not know. I do not understand that opinion to vacate the *supersedeas*. I take it an order must be entered, and that until it is entered the *supersedeas* operates. Such, certainly, would be the practice in our courts. And it seems to me too plain for argument that such order should be served on us by a certified copy.

I was under the impression that it was not necessary to wait until the mandate was sent down at the end of the term, but that the Court would make an order to the clerk to send to the clerk below the order and a copy of the opinion (see Phillips, p. 207-15; Peters, 119). I would be glad to know your views of the practice, if you disagree with me. However, the clerk can no doubt determine the matter at once.

I was not aware that any exception had been filed by Judge Cole to the allowance to the trustee for compensation and counsel fees. It is so entirely inadequate that I had supposed it could not be looked at in any other light.

I note your final statements in your letter: that you are informed from Des Moines that the Master has, at Judge Grant's suggestion, objected to advertising unless *procedendo* is issued from Supreme Court; that "Judge Grant must know that *procedendo* is not the usual practice of the Court at this stage, and that certificate is the sole paper that should be expected"; that, "as Judge Grant is counsel for trustees, of course they cannot but be responsible for the obstruction of the execution of the decree by him"; that you should be sorry if you write unnecessarily strongly on the matter, but, as it looked to you, "the course of Judge Grant seems to me [you] either merely trifling or as indicating anew the partiality to the parties hostile to the decree which has before been alleged and denied."

Pardon me if I say, with the best feelings towards you personally, that when you know that the course of Judge Grant, which you criticize as the obstructive course of the trustee, was pursued under special directions from Judge Dillon, you may consider your remarks somewhat hasty, and that in this case we shall probably get along better if we fully understand each other before acting.

Judge Grant writes to me that he called on Judge Dillon, and asked him if the Iowa Central could be sold before the mandate was sent to the Court below; that Judge Dillon asked who told the Master to sell; to which he answered, Judge Cole; that Judge Dillon's reply was to tell the Master to take no action until the mandate comes down, and not then except by order of the trustee, the plaintiff; that it was a very grave question for the trustee to sell the property with an appeal from the decree pending. Now, when I wrote the letter of January 8, I was under the impression that the proper course for the trustee would be to sell, if desired by the committee; but, as Judge Dillon has made the above remark, I think it proper to submit the matter to him; and when we receive, in due form, a request from your committee for us to execute the decree, and a due notification that the *supersedeas* is vacated, I will at once present a petition to the judge, and ask advice in the premises.

I presume, of course, that you are prepared to make proper arrangements for placing the trustee in funds, as is usual in such cases.

Very truly,

H. B. TURNER.

"The obstructive course of the trustee," then, as appears on the face of this letter, was simply an effort on the part of its counsel to have the record made complete and a refusal to execute the decree until that was done. To have at that time directed a sale before a proper order, decree, or writ had come down from the Supreme Court to the Circuit Court in Iowa would have been to act in contempt of the *supersedeas*.

It also appears on the face of that letter that different opinions were held as to the proper course to be pursued. Judge Dillon seemed to think a mandate from the Supreme Court necessary. Mr. Ashhurst, the prevailing party, whose duty it was to obtain what was requisite, says that "certificate" (whatever that may be) was the sole paper to be expected. Judge Grant, our associate in Iowa, thought a writ of *procedendo* necessary, while we entertained a different opinion, and suggested the course which Mr. Ashhurst subsequently adopted. As we have stated, no copy of the order of the Supreme Court vacating the *supersedeas* was served on us until January 26 last, nor did Mr. Ashhurst or any other person on behalf of any one in interest request the trustee to execute the decree until February 5, 1877. Prior to that date, however, a formal written remonstrance was served on us by which we were requested by a number of first-mortgage bondholders, including others besides the appellants, not to direct the execution of the decree until the determination of the appeal to the Supreme Court.

The trustee then applied to the Court for instructions. Judge Dillon, after hearing arguments, referred all the papers to his associate, Judge Love, who was absent, and who returned his opinion in March last to the

* The Jacquini pamphlet can be procured (price twenty-five cents) by addressing the Railroad Gazette, 78 Broadway, New York.

effect that there seemed to be no occasion for haste, and that he did not think it desirable to instruct the trustee to proceed. In this view Judge Dillon at first concurred, but subsequently, in May last, the matter being again brought before him, he delivered an opinion in which he said: "We would be glad if the trustee could see its way clear to execute that decree, and would be glad if it could get the road out of court and into the hands of parties who could control it to their satisfaction."

On the 2d day of June last the trustee came to the conclusion that it could safely execute the decree, and that it was advisable to do so; and on that day we telegraphed to the Master to proceed and sell. In reference to Judge Dillon's action in the case, we repeat that "the statement that he continued for some time to prevent any execution of the decree is absurd." Our client, the trustee, was the owner and holder of the decree, and, after the Supreme Court untied our hands, as soon as we thought it advisable to execute it we did so.

TURNER, LEE & McCURE.

20 NASSAU STREET, NEW YORK, August 24, 1877.

[We print the above at great inconvenience to ourselves, and in the present stage of the controversy cannot surrender any more space to communications on the subject. We do not see that the letter of Messrs. Turner, Lee & McClure at all alters the case. It shows distinctly that before the 19th of January Judge Dillon told Judge Grant (in whose office he holds chambers, and who, nevertheless, is the Iowa counsel for the trustee in this case) that it was "a very grave question for the trustee to sell the property with an appeal from the decree pending"; that in March he warned the trustee off, and only in May hurried on the sale. In the face of such facts, to say that a statement that the judge obstructed the execution of the decree is "absurd," is simply to say that the letter of the 19th of January contained a series of falsehoods. It should be noticed, also, that the case against Judge Dillon does not rest upon his rulings at any one stage of it, but is based on his acts covering a period of nearly two years, and is cumulative in character. It is proper to add, perhaps, for the benefit of a number of newspapers which have seen fit to assume that we have prejudged the case, and have, therefore, called upon us to "retract" and "apologize," that while it is one of the duties of a newspaper to abstain from prejudging charges against public officers, it is also one of their duties not to refuse to discuss them, nor to smuggle them away and hide them from public sight, but to insist on a fair examination and adjudication. This is what we have done in the present instance. It is idle, after all the judicial and legal scandals we have had since the war, to pretend that judges are, from the high character of their office, above suspicion; and when a scandal exists involving the character of a judge of a United States court, and a candidate for the Supreme Bench, not only lawyers but laymen perform a duty to the public in insisting that it be probed to the bottom.—ED. NATION.]

LITERATURE AT YALE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The *Hartford Courant*, some weeks since, contained an editorial presumably by Mr. Chas. Dudley Warner, entitled "Yale and Literature." A few sentences, quoted from it here and there, will show its drift:

"Harvard, in its graduates as well as its professors, is conspicuous in literature. Yale is rather conspicuous as an unliterary university. It is less literary than many of the inferior colleges. Its men are distinguished in law, in politics, in business, and the pulpit. But, as a rule, these men have lacked literary accomplishment and literary taste. The reason is that literature is disregarded in the college course. The college has openly proclaimed its contempt for literature, by placing the department in charge of a gentleman who could only give to it a modicum of time while discharging his duty to the Government as collector of customs."

There can be no doubt that the editorial from which I have given the above brief extracts contained truth that will bear reiteration. When one considers how fairly in England the honors of literature have been divided between Oxford and Cambridge, the literary unproductiveness of Yale, as compared with Harvard, is remarkable. Looking through the Yale triennial lately I found only two names in the last fifty years that have attained

any eminence in literature proper—the now almost-forgotten poet Percival and Donald G. Mitchell, both of these lights of the third or fourth magnitude. Of her roll of scientists, theologians, and philosophers the old Connecticut university has no reason to be ashamed. Silliman, Dana, Hadley, Woolsey, Porter, are names widely known and honored. But Channing, Gray, Child, and Wright, at Harvard, are names of no less eminence in their respective fields of research, while among the graduates and professors at New Haven there are absolutely no names to match those of Emerson, Lowell, Holmes, Bancroft, Motley, Prescott, and Parkman.

The writer in the *Courant* finds a reason for this singular deficiency in the neglect with which literature has been treated at Yale. Doubtless this notorious and lamentable indifference on the part of the body of government and instruction is one reason why Yale has turned out not a single man really distinguished in literature. But the ultimate cause, or causes, of this deficiency, I think, must be sought further back. How has it come about that one of the two leading colleges of the land should be so obtuse to the value of literary culture? If I mistake not, one great reason is to be found in the general torpor of the State in which the college is situated. At the risk of appearing invidious, I venture to affirm that Connecticut is a long way behind Massachusetts in provision for the literary culture of her children. Illustrations of the disparity between the two States in this regard may be found in such facts as these: In 1875 there were in Massachusetts 164 public libraries, in Connecticut only 8; even Hartford, the wealthy capital of the State, being without a free library. In Connecticut there are but 14 high-schools, in Massachusetts about 170. The prevalence of Copperheadism during the late war in Connecticut was an index of the low state of popular education. If I am not mistaken, there is not a single fully-established Unitarian church in Connecticut, while in Massachusetts there are scores—a fact not without a literary as well as theological significance in New England.

Am I wrong in conjecturing that the unliterary character of Yale College is largely due to the unliterary atmosphere of the State in which the college is situated, and in which most of its more distinguished graduates have been bred? Doubtless this atmosphere has been in part created by the college; but more general influences have, I believe, been chiefly at work to produce the unhappy result we are considering. I do not know what has made the people of Connecticut notably unlike the people of Massachusetts; but it is plain that the Connecticut mind is severely practical. For poetry, fiction, belles-lettres in general it cares little. Education it values chiefly as a means of getting on in the world. A certain stiffness and aridity marks, with few exceptions, even its highest culture, while the popular culture is exceedingly narrow.

It will be well if more attention shall be given in the future to the study of English literature at Yale, but it is of more importance that the public-school system of Connecticut should be greatly improved, and that free libraries should be multiplied tenfold. There would seem to be no reason in the nature of things why Yale should not vie with Harvard in sending forth lights of literature as of philosophy and science, provided only literature is made as honorable in the popular estimation as are philosophy and science. At present the Connecticut boy's great man is either a lawyer, or a scientist, or a minister. Teach him that a poet or an essayist may exert as profound an influence as can emanate from the bar or the Senate-chamber, and if he never gets to college he may become a Whittier or an Irving or a Howells; or if he goes to Yale, he may, like Lowell, forsake law, or, like Emerson, theology for literature. In a word, make the *people* fond of literature and there will be no lack of devotion to literature among college graduates.

JEMAND.

[We think our correspondent overlooks in his comparison one extenuating fact for Yale, viz., that she has always drawn, relatively, far more students from the West and South than Harvard has. Now, the condition of neither of these sections has been favorable to literary productiveness of a high order—the West, because of its raw state of growth; the South, because of slavery. Moreover, and partly for the same reason, Yale has never held the same intimate relation to New Haven and Connecticut that Harvard holds to Boston and Massachusetts. Emerson, Lowell, and the other writers named, were all born within a radius of forty miles from Boston.

Yale might also ask how it is that the youngest of these lights, Mr. Parkman, was graduated as far back as 1844, and that in the thirty-three succeeding years Harvard can show no other litterateur of sufficient eminence to warrant our correspondent's naming

him. We recently alluded to the barrenness of the period, as far as new men were concerned, not for Harvard alone, but for the entire country. If we were asked to suggest the causes of it, we should point to the anti-slavery agitation, beginning with the annexation of Texas and including the Mexican war; the civil war; the enormous material development of the country, with its temptations to forsake study for money-getting; the increased attractions of scientific pursuits for educated men, and the corresponding decline in the attractiveness of the ministerial calling.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE War Department at Washington has issued a map of the European seat of war in two sheets, including the Black and part of the Caspian Sea. It is a very ordinary production in all respects. Looking solely at the names of places, we have English, French, and German forms jumbled together, and such errors of spelling as Tuturkai (for Turtukai), Bela (for Biela), and even Tchinka for the village of Shipka, the pass itself being spelt Schipka. This shows ignorant compiling and careless draughtsmanship. If, as is presumably the case, this map is put forth to enable our officers to follow the war intelligently, we must say that the same end could have been far better attained by procuring and distributing Handtke's and other German maps, and probably at less expense.—Baron Tauchnitz and Herr Auerbach of Stuttgart have concluded satisfactory arrangements with Mr. John Habberton for the republication in their respective English and German series of his 'Helen's Babies' and 'Other People's Children.'—J. W. Bouton has nearly ready 'Isis Unveiled: a Master-Key to the Mysteries of Ancient and Modern Science and Theology,' by Mme. H. P. Blavatsky, corresponding secretary of the Theosophical Society.—Little, Brown & Co. have in press 'Count Frontenac and New France under Louis XIV.,' by Francis Parkman; 'Memoirs of Daniel Webster,' by the late Peter Harvey; and a fourth edition of Bartlett's 'Dictionary of Americanisms.'—Hurd & Houghton will shortly publish the 'Poetic Inspiration of Nature,' by Professor (late Principal) Shairp, Matthew Arnold's successor in the chair of poetry at Oxford.—Two works by Prince Lubomirski, 'The Russians in Samarcand,' and 'Scenes of Military Life in Russia'; and 'Spírito,' by Théophile Gautier, are announced by D. Appleton & Co.—J. R. Osgood & Co. will reprint in their Little Classic edition 'Household Education,' by Harriet Martineau.—The second series of the 'Théâtre de Campagne' follows closely in the footsteps of the first. The eight little one-act plays which it contains are excellently adapted for reading aloud or performance in American parlors. With the exception of "Sa Canne et son Chapeau," and a few lines in "Les Convictions de Papa," there is nothing in the volume which could raise a blush in a Puritan school-room. The admirers of 'M., Mme. et Bébé' will find here a little comedy, 'Les Crises de Monseigneur,' by M. Droz, which has all his lightness and brightness and fineness of observation, although it seems a little deficient in scenic qualities. M. Meilhac's comedy, announced with a most promising title, 'Les Trois Belles-Mères,' does not appear in the volume and is probably reserved for a third series. "Le Mari qui dort" is an almost perfect specimen of that peculiarly French production, the "comédie de salon en vers"; the verse is as dainty and delicate as may be, and the characters are drawn with the firm touch of a real dramatist; it is by M. Edmund Gondinet, a writer far less known among us than he deserves to be.—Carl Wolff's 'Historischer Atlas' (Berlin: D. Reimer; New York: L. W. Schmidt) is now completed by the issue of the third part, containing six maps, mostly of Europe in the Middle Ages, and text descriptive of the whole series of eighteen.

—When we see an article in an illustrated magazine on a subject which has already been elaborately treated in a lavishly embellished volume, it is a natural inference that the illustrations of the article are a few of the illustrations of the book, and that the letterpress of the article is a condensation of the letterpress of the book. It is pleasant, therefore, to find that the essays on "Fans," by Mr. Maurice Mauris, in the September *Scribner*, is not a mere summary of M. Blondel's 'Histoire des Even-tails.' It seems, indeed, to be entirely the result of original research, owing little or nothing to M. Blondel's book, which is nowhere cited by Mr. Mauris and is perhaps not known to him. Nor are the illustrations the same; although in two instances, and possibly in one or two more, the objects engraved are identical. The thirty-two woodcuts in *Scribner* are far

finer than the hazy "process" work with which M. Blondel's book was illustrated. No. 17 is a beautiful specimen of vigorous drawing; less successful is No. 30, after a design by the late J. L. Hamon, and apparently the reduction of a larger block. It is not as inspired as the best of Hamon's work in this line. A lady of this city owns one of his fans, than which nothing could be more airily graceful; in the centre, Cupid in his web is waiting and watching a female figure on either side floating in the air and about to fling herself into his toils. The mount of this fan, in several hues of gold and silver, was designed by M. Worth, the man-milliner, who in his leisure is an artist and delights in seeking inspiration and refreshing his invention by the study of the other fine arts. Mr. Mauris's article is entertaining, although, of course, not exhaustive. A recent number of the *Academy* announces that the next exhibition of the Liverpool Art Club will be a loan collection of fans. The first exhibition of this kind was held at South Kensington in 1870. The latest, if we mistake not, took place this year in Dresden. There is no reason why the next should not be held in New York.

—The predominant flavor of *Lippincott's Magazine* for September might be called Italian, seeing that there is an illustrated paper ("A Paduan Holiday") by Charlotte Adams, a translation from Edmondo de Amicis ("A Great Day"), and an interesting account of the dramatist Carlo Gozzi ("A Venetian of the Eighteenth Century") by H. M. Benson. Mr. Howard M. Jenkins bases on a contemporary narrative, presumably by a Quaker eye-witness, a description of the battle of Brandywine, whose centenary occurs next week. The story is well told, but deserves a sketch-map of the field. On some accounts the anonymous biography of Madame Patterson-Bonaparte is the most attractive article in the present number. It is, in fact, almost an autobiography, and when the writer says that "Mme. Bonaparte relates," we are perhaps favored with an extract from her diary, which it is hinted may some day be published. Most of the anecdotes about herself are flattering to her former beauty and *esprit*, as is altogether pardonable in a nonagenarian. Of her husband Jerome she says: "He loved me to the last; he thought me the handsomest woman in the world, and the most charming." Aaron Burr called her "a charming little woman, . . . by some thought too free"; Miss Berry reported to Horace Walpole that she was "exceedingly pretty, without grace, and not at all shy"; Mme. de Staël pronounced her "bien, bien jolie"; and the uncle of Jerome's second wife conceded grace, beauty, and wit to the discarded *Américaine*. Jerome himself, meeting her twenty years after his abandonment of her, was overcome by her loveliness while failing to recognize her. His enquiry who she was, was answered by her successor, who was with him at the time (they were in the Pitti Palace), and for a moment the two wives confronted each other. The princess of Würtemberg "evinced always the utmost interest in her predecessor," and treated "with maternal kindness" Mme. Patterson's son, who had been sent for to come to Rome by Jerome. She "went two leagues to meet him, and taking his face between her hands said tearfully, 'Ah! mon enfant, je suis la cause innocente de tous vos malheurs.'" Jerome ignored his son in his will, which Mme. Bonaparte vainly contested. Her grandson, Captain Bonaparte, received from Napoleon III. an annuity of six thousand dollars, which terminated only with the Empire. Among the interesting characterizations of distinguished personages whom Mme. Bonaparte met while she resided abroad, those of her mother-in-law and sisters-in-law, whom she first saw at Rome, are perhaps the best worth quoting: The former "was not tall; features like her great son; fine mournful eyes; a manner touching and majestic. She was then very *dévoté*. Pauline was empty-headed, selfish, and vain, cared only for luxury, but in every line exquisite as Canova's statue represents her. Hortense was not really handsome—irregular features, a wide mouth exposing the gums and defective teeth, a blemish in her mother, whose faultless figure, kindly nature, and caressing manner she also inherited. She was lovely at the harp, and sang her own romances in a sweet voice."

—The *Nineteenth Century* for August is remarkable for contrasted articles on Egypt, as related to British "interests," by Mr. Edward Dicey and Mr. Gladstone, the latter having had the privilege of reading the former's article before writing his own. Mr. Dicey's article is, in fact, but a supplement to his previous contribution, entitled "Our Route to India," which appeared in the June number, and the gist of which he sums up thus: "The impending dismemberment of the Ottoman Empire, as a result of the Turco-Russian war, must inevitably expose our right of way to India through the Suez Canal to new and increased risks of interruption. Under the altered conditions of the

East the absolute control of the Suez Canal is essential to our hold on India. Such a control can, from the nature of the case, be only exercised by the power which is dominant in the Delta. Therefore the virtual occupation of Lower Egypt has become a matter of necessity for England." His article was, therefore, a plea for the immediate occupation of the Isthmus by England, and from the responses to it he believes that the ultimate possession of Egypt by England is generally regarded by his countrymen as a foregone conclusion, even if they do not recognize an urgent necessity for immediate action. To the objection that the proposed action of England would help Russia and hasten the downfall of Turkey, he answers that England in this matter has a right to consult her own interests irrespective of the effect of her actions upon either Turkey or Russia, and, moreover, he believes that Turkey, in her present straitened financial condition, would gladly cede to England, for a comparatively small sum—perhaps £6,000,000—the suzerainty of Egypt. In this, or in some other way if necessary, he thinks that Egypt might be secured without violence and without giving offence to France, and that it could be easily governed by making use of the machinery of the Khedive now in operation. Mr. Gladstone, in his reply, takes the unusual position for an Englishman that a retention of India is not essential to the national importance of England—that India, in fact, is held, as a matter of solemn duty, for India's good rather than England's; and that the question of the continuance of England's power in India must be decided (he does not fix a day for taking a vote) by "the will of the two hundred and forty millions of people who inhabit India." He would not, again, regard British interests in the Suez Canal as necessarily endangered even if Russia took possession of Constantinople, and, at the worst, if England should lose the Suez Canal, is disposed to believe that she may get to India comfortably as in former days, by a voyage around the Cape. He argues, further, that the administration of Egyptian affairs would be a difficult matter, and would probably involve the extension of British rule over a large part of Northern Africa. In conclusion, he regards any scheme of this kind as of doubtful aspect "before the high tribunal of international law and right," and thinks it would be well to await the actual death of Turkey before beginning a division of its inheritance.

—The *American Naturalist* for August contains the address delivered by Mr. Clarence King at the Sheffield Scientific School on the 26th of June last, which demands attention of a different kind from that claimed by most oratorical productions. Mr. King is the head of the great National Survey on the line of the 40th parallel. After some twelve years of labor in the field he has nearly completed his work, and is prepared to give what is for practical purposes a complete geological section of the whole country between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean, a distance of nearly two thousand miles, of which the actual field-work covers nine hundred miles of mountainous country where geological forces have worked on a tremendous scale and under very favorable conditions. When it is remembered that the longest possible European section of continuous mountain elevations is not only far shorter than this, but far inferior for purposes of generalization, it will be seen that the Americans have a great advantage in the breadth of their view. This address of Mr. King's is, we believe, his first expression of opinion as to the bearings of his survey on the theory of his science, and the result is certainly calculated to rouse curiosity. It will be remembered even by unscientific readers that Sir Charles Lyell stamped on geology, and even upon ontology, as an axiom the principle that all changes, whether in the earth's crust or in the nature of species, have been the result of still existing forces acting through indefinite time by continuous but not violent modifications. Where geology or paleontology seems to show a violent interruption of continuity, the effect is really due to the imperfection of the geological record, of which we possess only small and unconnected fragments. This principle is also accepted by Mr. Darwin, although it forms no necessary part of the theory of evolution. It is therefore a matter of some consequence that Mr. King, whose field experience is greater than that of any European, and whose abilities are certainly entitled to high respect, should now assure us that the facts of our Western geology show the clearest proof of violent catastrophes recurring at intervals between periods of permanence, and in each case accompanied by a complete change in existing species. He maintains that in the face of the facts of our geology the uniformitarian theory breaks down and must be abandoned: that the existence of geological catastrophes must be accepted as part of the science, and must be allowed to have had a considerable, if not a principal, effect on the evolution of species. His theory is that in these cataclysms only the most plastic species could survive.

"When catastrophic change burst in upon the ages of uniformity and sounded in the ear of every living thing the words, 'Change or die,' plasticity became the sole principle of salvation." In other words, nature under this extreme exigency actually did proceed by what amounted to leaps, and this is the reason, not the defects in the geological record, why the leaps of biology correspond with the gaps of geology. Mr. King occupies a position which may be called one of "modified catastrophism," half-way between the extreme catastrophists and the extreme uniformitarians. In this address he has not ventured to speculate on the future nor to prophesy cataclysms to come, but he certainly leaves them to be inferred. Nor does he as yet suggest any theory as to the law or laws which may govern these recurring phenomena, without which he will have simply succeeded in depriving us of Lyell's system without offering us a system of his own. Probably his forthcoming report will deal at full length with all these questions, and at least sketch the outlines of a geological system which will correspond with the facts of the geological record. As a literary performance addressed to a general audience the only unfavorable criticisms suggested by the address are that its English is unnecessarily disfigured by what, as a matter of style, can only be called the jargon of science, and that the speaker has hardly taken care enough to guard against misconception.

—Prof. Budinszky, of the University of Czernowitz, has enlarged and published in book-form the thesis which he presented as a student in the *École des Chartes*, upon the history of the University of Paris; it is in German and published at Berlin. The historical sketch is brief, and presents nothing essentially new; but more than half the book is made up of a list of the most prominent of the teachers and students of the University, arranged according to nations—a compendious and very valuable list. The history of the University is traced back to various educational experiments in earlier times; but its formal organization belongs to the reign of Philip Augustus, towards the close of the twelfth century. The organization in four nations and four faculties are clearly described—the same four faculties which the German Universities have at the present day, except that the faculty of Philosophy was called that of Arts, and ranked as somewhat lower than those of Theology, Medicine, and Law. The University of Paris, it is well known, ranked with that of Bologna as a chief seat of learning in the Middle Ages, being distinguished for theology as Bologna was for law: the instruction here, however, was censured, even at the time, for its leaning towards hair-splitting dialectics—a natural fault in an institution which made theology its principal aim.

—The contents of Steinmeyer's *Zeitschrift für deutsches Alterthum*, however valuable to the professional student, are usually of too special or technical a nature to interest the general reader. No. 3, for this year, however, has a long and valuable article upon a recent "find" which we judge worthy of note. The city librarian of Trier has succeeded in detaching the parchment covers from some *incunabula* in his custody, and Steinmeyer and Roediger have deciphered and edited the fragments. These fragments formed evidently part of a large manuscript of the XIIIth century, and exhibit portions of German versions of the *Egidius* and *Sylvester* legend, and of the well-known romance of 'Floire and Blancheflore.' The conclusions reached by Steinmeyer are very significant, and are briefly as follow: 1. The monkish legend being in High German and the romance in Low German, we have two distinct dialects side by side in the same document. 2. These remains of the romance are the earliest known in German, and afford additional evidence to the theory that the Lower Rhine was the intermediary between Mediæval French literature and the so-called classic High German of the South. 3. This close juxtaposition of monkish legend and worldly romance goes to show that the lives of the saints had ceased to be works of edification, and were becoming what we should now call "light literature."

—The territory to the south of Abyssinia, now known by the name of Harrar, but which formerly constituted the ancient Empire of Adel—a country equal in extent to the New England and Middle States—was in 1875 annexed to the dominions of the Khedive of Egypt. The recall of this land to civilization, after the lapse of many centuries, is an event of no slight historical interest. Having been for some time the theatre of the civilizing operations of the Pharaohs, afterwards overrun and held by the savages of Central Africa, the country was at length subjugated by the Arabs towards the close of the seventh century. The Arab chiefs founded and built up gradually the Empire of Adel—an empire which, by the energy of successive rulers, soon became a menace to, and finally conquered, the Kingdom of Ethiopia, and in the fourteenth century was strong enough to struggle on equal terms with the Kingdom of Abyssinia.

For two centuries wars were incessantly waged between Adel and Abyssinia. In the sixteenth century these wars were rendered more important by the participation of European nations. The Turks, having conquered Egypt and Arabia, and having taken possession of the city of Zeylah, provided their co-religionists in Adel with fire-arms, cannon, and a corps of artillerymen. On the other hand, the Portuguese, coming from India, furnished the Abyssinians with officers, soldiers, and arms. The history of these wars—a study of which, by the way, would amply repay the labor—is enriched by the daring exploits and feats of arms of Stephen and Christopher da Gama—brothers of the Da Gama who made himself so prominent in the Western hemisphere. Since the sixteenth century the principal seaports, Zeylah, Tajurra, Berbera, and Bulbar, have continued subject to the authority of the Turks, but the fortified city of Harrar was chosen as the seat of government of the Emir of Adel, or, as he was subsequently called, the Emir of Harrar. The emir was very powerful, and ruled with a strong hand the various tribes of Gallas and the Somali who live between the city of Harrar and the coast, until the end of the seventeenth century. But as the tribes increased and became more powerful they refused any longer to pay to the emir the blackmail which was levied upon the caravans *en route* to and from the Central African lakes, and at last the entire country outside of the walls of Harrar became independent of his authority. The caravans, deprived of the protection which they had formerly been obliged to purchase from the emir, diminished in numbers, and thus the seaports suffered greatly from the loss of the wonted importation of slaves, ivory, ostrich-feathers, coffee, cattle, etc.

—Such was the state of affairs when, in 1871, the Porte conceded to the Khedive of Egypt the country bordering upon the coast between Zeylah and the Indian Ocean. The seaports were at once proclaimed by the Egyptian Government open to trade, with the exception of the exportation of slaves, which was prohibited under severe penalties. At Berbera a lighthouse, pier, hospital, and post-office were constructed, and the neighboring country surveyed, and an Egyptian vessel of war is always stationed in the harbor; and this city, which five years ago was the scene of most sanguinary annual battles between native tribes, to settle which one should have the right to gather the harvest, now affords the surest protection to life and property. In the face of such a state of things on the coast, it was impossible that the country of Harrar could long remain in a state of utter barbarism, preventing free communication between the interior of the continent and the seaports. At the instance of traders who had been plundered, the Khedive in 1875 despatched a military expedition, under the command of General Raouf-Pasha, to Harrar, and the country was easily subdued and annexed to Egypt. To-day the ancient city of Harrar is the capital of an Egyptian province. Schools and a regular administration in all branches have been established, an accurate map of the city and its environs made, and a wagon road to the coast—about two hundred miles distance—is in course of construction. Harrar is of importance not only on account of its position commanding the communication with the interior, but also on account of the grain-producing capacity of the environs and the excellent pasturage for cattle. Coffee is also produced on the hills near Harrar of a quality equal if not superior to the celebrated Yemen coffee. The last Emir of Harrar had restricted the culture of coffee, assigning as his reason a fear "lest the production might be too large for the demand." The Egyptian Governor-General, however, is of course ordered to stimulate coffee-raising as much as possible, and it is very probable, if not certain, that the production will be enormously increased, and, when the wagon road is finished, can be transported to the seaports at a comparatively trifling cost. The tribes of Gallas in the neighboring country are large cattle-raisers, and in course of time this industry also will become a source of considerable revenue.

STEPHEN'S HISTORY OF ENGLISH THOUGHT IN THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY.*

"WHO, born within the last forty years, has read one word of Collins, and Toland, and Tindal, and Chubb, and Morgan, and that whole race who called themselves Freethinkers? Who now reads Bolingbroke? Who ever read him through? Ask the booksellers of London what is become of all these lights of the world. In a few years their few successors will go to the family vault of 'all the Capuets.'"

Mr. Leslie Stephen's admirable account of the course of English thought during the last century might fitly be described as an historical

comment on the text supplied by Burke's insolent invective. What renders the text specially impressive is, that while literally true to the year, the inferences which it suggests have been falsified by later experience. Burke's language accurately describes the English sentiment in 1791. The term freethinker had become a term of contemptuous dislike. Men of common sense had given a distinct verdict in favor of conservatism in theology and in politics. The contests of a century had terminated in what the political slang of to-day calls the triumph of moral order. The triumph, moreover, was not short-lived. For at least forty years the predominant tone of society in England remained unchanged. Radicalism and scepticism were, till at least 1830, associated in the minds of respectable Englishmen with the horrors of the Reign of Terror and the vulgarity of Tom Paine. But the inference that scepticism in theology and the revolutionary spirit in politics had been not only checked but permanently defeated was, we now know, delusive. If Chubb and Morgan were dead and buried, the influence of Gibbon and Hume was only beginning to tell on English thought. The aristocratic constitution which Burke worshipped has kept its form, but has lost half the characteristics which excited his admiration; and the most respectable writers of the nineteenth century do not hesitate to discuss topics which the older freethinkers only hesitatingly approached; while such publications, for example, as the *Contemporary Review* or the *Fortnightly* express month by month sentiments which in the time of Burke might have roused the interference of the attorney-general.

With the course of speculation in the nineteenth century Mr. Stephen is not directly concerned. But the first requisite for understanding the thoughts of the present time and for forming some conjecture as to the current of opinion in the future, is to know the direction taken by speculation in the last century and to understand the nature and significance of its results. To enable his readers to see both why English thought at the end of the last century resulted in what may be called, according to one's sympathies, either repose or stagnation; and what is the just value to be attached to the conservatism with which the century ended in England, is, as we understand it, the task which Mr. Stephen has undertaken to perform. Of his qualifications for his performance it is scarcely possible to speak too highly. It were almost impertinence for any critic who did not, like Mr. Pattison, possess a knowledge of eighteenth-century literature equalling Mr. Stephen's own, to commend the extent of Mr. Stephen's knowledge. The thoroughness of his work, his studious intention and fairness, his keen sense of humor, which, combined with his keen perception of personal characteristics, enables him to give interest to the dry details of past controversies, are characteristics of Mr. Stephen which cannot escape the notice of intelligent readers. To this must be added that he sympathizes with that belief in reason and reasoning which constitutes the noblest trait of the authors of the eighteenth century. One may not think Mr. Stephen's arguments always conclusive, but he always does argue and never attempts to make ingenious insinuation fill the place of argument; and, as we have already noticed, he has the merit, not always found in argumentative writers, of never forgetting that propounders of systems are, after all, human beings, and influenced, like other human beings, by the peculiarities of their situation or character. His fondness, indeed, for thinkers, who, like Johnson, Law, Tucker, or Godwin, have a marked personality, is almost excessive. It leads him, for example, considerably to overrate the importance of the speculations in which the author of 'Political Justice' displays his dogmatism and his speculative incapacity. It leads Mr. Stephen to dwell, perhaps, too long on the theories of Warburton, who, if hateful as a bully, certainly conciliates his critic by his outrageous crochetedness. The tendency, further, to dwell on personal characteristics, though it adds to the interest of Mr. Stephen's writing, increases the difficulty of following the course of his argument. There is no summary of the inferences which the author thinks flow from his narrative. The facts of the case are stated with great ability, and important conclusions are suggested; but Mr. Stephen never definitely sums them up. Every one is left to return such a verdict on the thought of the eighteenth century as the facts suggest to his own mind. The general impression left upon us by Mr. Stephen's historical statement is distinct enough to be laid before our readers, but fairness requires the caution that, in attempting to give in bare outline the results of his narrative, we may be attributing to him inferences which are, after all, not his but our own.

The eighteenth century may, in England at least, be described as an age of which the natural development was arrested. Old institutions in church and state, old ideas in the sphere both of politics and of theology, were in England, no less than on the Continent, gradually crumbling

* 'History of English Thought in the Eighteenth Century,' By Leslie Stephen. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: G. P. Putnam & Sons. 1877.

away under the influence of a spirit which, according to the eyes with which you regard it, may be described either as the spirit of enlightenment or the spirit of scepticism. The influence of this spirit is, as Mr. Stephen is careful to point out, traceable in the writings as well of the orthodox as of sceptics. But the progress of opinion which in France led to the outbreak of democratic violence and irreligious fanaticism, conducted Englishmen to the firm though prosaic conservatism in church and state which professes to be based on the dictates of plain common sense. To account for these facts is the problem set before the critic of English thought. Mr. Stephen suggests, as we read him, several considerations which, if they do not solve, certainly point towards a solution of the enigma.

It should, in the first place, be noted that in all the great controversies which have divided the world men have never really proceeded from the explicit recognition of a general principle to an acceptance of all which that principle involves. What really happens is that some portion of an existing belief is questioned. From controversies about a detail men ultimately come to disputes about an extensive principle. "A new opinion emerges, as a rule, in regard to some particular fragment of a creed. An acute thinker detects an error of logic or a want of correspondence between theory and fact. Whilst correcting the error he does not appreciate the importance of the principles involved. . . . The normal attitude of thought is to be heterogeneous and therefore unstable. When the key of the position is won a battle must still be fought over every subordinate position. Philosophers, however," as Mr. Stephen characteristically adds, "may congratulate themselves upon the inconsistency of mankind, for if it were generally admitted that a principle which is true in one case must be true in all similar cases, philosophy would be crushed in the shell by the antipathies aroused." Whatever the value of the consolation tendered to philosophers, the importance of the principle expounded with great originality by Mr. Stephen is past question. It explains the fragmentary character of the controversies with which he deals. It further suggests a cause of weakness on the part of sceptics on isolated points even when they were in the right: they could not push their success far because they themselves admitted principles which were really inconsistent with the only position from which their sceptical criticism was defensible. No one, for example, whatever his theological views, would now rest his faith on the kind of argument used by Sherlock in his 'Trial of the Witnesses.' Yet the train of reasoning was one used by men of great honesty and ability, and one to which opponents found it hard to make a successful reply. Assume that the burden of proof lay on those who denied, and not on those who affirmed, the fact of miracles. Assume, further, that a religious creed must, if the facts which it asserted did not actually take place, have been the product of conscious imposture, and Sherlock's argument becomes unanswerable. Yet these assumptions were, it seems, granted by the great mass of Sherlock's opponents.

A second point curiously illustrated by the polemical literature of which the 'Trial of the Witnesses' is a type is that, during the eighteenth century, innovators were hampered by their own ignorance of what is called the historical method, or (as we should prefer to say) by want of knowledge of the facts of history. The existing institutions (to confine ourselves to the political sphere) were open enough to criticism; but the theories prevalent, based on the "rights of man," or the "social contract," could not hold water for a moment when questioned by any acute reasoner. This defect was felt, probably, by the advocates of change themselves. It was certainly felt by the public to whom their arguments were addressed. Men who attacked the English Constitution on the ground that it violated natural rights were easily shown to occupy an untenable position. When democrats assailed king, lords, and commons in the name of the social contract, it did not want the genius of Burke to rout the assailants and to suggest to men of common sense that exposure of Rousseau's fallacies was equivalent to a justification of the existence of rotten boroughs. The intellectual causes, in short, which hindered the success of innovation were, first, that revolutionary thinkers had not fully grasped the bearings of their own principles, and, secondly, that their historical ignorance rendered their speculative views erroneous. Even the acuteness of Hume was, as Mr. Stephen again and again points out, foiled by the latter cause. He tried to open a lock for which he did not possess the right key.

But the progress of speculation depends as much on social or political as on merely intellectual causes. "The logical strength and weakness of the various creeds which were struggling for the mastery during the eighteenth century go some way to explain the course of the intellectual history; but no explanation can be complete which does not take into ac-

count the social conditions which determined their reception." Nothing is more remarkable in Mr. Stephen's whole book than the tenacity with which this position is kept in mind, and the vigor with which it is enforced. Every speculative objection to the creed of Voltaire or Rousseau which checked its influence in England was of equal weight in France. It is vain to suppose that hundreds of Frenchmen could not have detected the fallacies which were equally patent to Bentham and to Burke. Godwin's 'Political Justice' would, if Godwin had been a Frenchman, have qualified its author, first, for the National Assembly, and, next, for the guillotine. In England it did not earn him even the honor of a prosecution, and brought down upon him the crushing refutation of Malthus.

Of the external influences which checked the spread of revolutionary scepticism in England several lie on the surface of English history. The social and political grievances which excited Frenchmen to hatred of all the institutions of their country were unknown to the prosperous and self-complacent middle-classes of England. Active persecution was unknown, and the abhorrence of priests wanted the irritation which keeps it alive. The fervor of Wesleyanism had, as Mr. Stephen points out, a political effect which has often been unnoticed. It turned the enthusiasm of the poor towards religious reformation, and thus diverted it from the sphere of politics. The eloquence and fervor of Whitfield might have aroused the revolutionary spirit, had it been applied to the exposition, not of the Gospel, but of Rousseau's social contract. The general political habits of Englishmen, tending, as such habits always must, to produce a spirit of compromise and moderation, was further adverse to extreme views, either in theology or in politics. When the great Revolution broke out, its horrors soon quenched the little revolutionary fervor to be found in English society, and other minor causes might be mentioned which promoted the growth of conservative sentiment. But while the obvious influences which favored conservatism in England ought not to be overlooked, a more general cause of reaction towards religious and political orthodoxy deserves observation. The different classes of society do not progress at the same rate. The poorer and less educated long retain prejudices or principles which have been rejected by the wealthier and therefore more educated classes. Even among the wealthy there are immense differences in the rate at which men's speculative opinions progress. Scientific notions which impress a few thinkers are scattered among their disciples and mould the thought of a small body; but beyond the sphere of a limited clique, sceptical or enlightened thought may have no influence. Wesley founded Methodism in the age of Hume and Gibbon. The men to whom he preached were, it may safely be assumed, uninfluenced by the speculations or the sneers contained in the 'Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.' But this unequal progression implies of itself constant reaction. Thinkers are compelled to stop their advance till the crowd catches up with them, and even the most ardent of sceptics must admit that this necessary delay often compels daring theorists to revise and get rid of crude speculations. What is the exception is for a whole nation apparently to move forward together. The revolutionary rush of France towards a new era represents not the normal but the exceptional course of progress. The usual and probably the most beneficial kind of advance is, as in England, marked by constant delays and occasional retrogression. The return towards conservative ideas which marks the close of the last century has more than a transitory importance. It exhibits to a certain extent the natural ebb and flow of feeling which in a peaceful society will always characterize the development of opinion. If France seemed in the space of a few years to effect alterations which in other countries have been carried out only in the course of centuries, the last seventy years have been spent in a hardly successful effort to bring the mass of Frenchmen up to the level of what was true and sound in the ideas of '89.

But though the influences, either internal or external, which arrested the vigor of English speculation may be analyzed, Mr. Leslie Stephen never forgets, or suffers his readers to forget, that the triumph of so-called common sense and of conservative sentiment over daring speculation and the spirit of change is always accompanied by great intellectual and moral evils. An age in which Warburton passed for a great theologian had, somehow or other, wandered very far from the path which must be pursued by men inspired either by keen religious fervor or by enthusiasm for truth. The intellectual and religious problems which occupy men's minds in the great eras of history cannot ultimately be set aside by any scheme of judicious compromise. "Many of our men of speculation," writes Burke, "instead of exploding general prejudices, employ their sagacity to discover the latent wisdom which prevails in them." In church, in state, in the sphere of theology and the sphere of politics, the century terminated in England as an age of apologists. The temporary answers to

inadequate criticism had a real value, but their worth could at best be only temporary. From Burke's language of triumph intelligent critics might infer, what Mr. Stephen's history conclusively shows, that the triumph could, from its nature, last but for a time. To condemn Tindal and Chubb and Morgan will not enable us to overlook the questions raised by writers whose works are forgotten. The failure of the eighteenth century to solve problems of infinite difficulty and infinite importance has not removed the necessity of attempting their solution.

BEYOND THE JORDAN.*

THE American Palestine Exploration Society has issued its Fourth Statement. As the explorations of the society seem now to be practically suspended, there being no surveying party in the field and the archaeologist having returned to this country, this number may be considered as for the present concluding the society's reports. Colonel James C. Lane was the commander of the last party of exploration for survey, and he seems to have been allowed only to make a reconnaissance. His report treats of the character of the country east of the Jordan and the methods of survey which may be feasible. Of the eight thousand square miles in the territory, he finds nearly half to be either mountainous or almost impracticable for travel or residence from the prevalence of rugged volcanic rocks and boulders. The yearly cost of carrying on the survey for three years he calculates at \$27,000. This seemed to the managers of the society quite an impracticable amount to raise in these times, and the company of surveyors was recalled.

The bulk of this 'Statement,' however, is taken up with two reports of the archaeologist, Selah Merrill, D.D. The first covers the trip made with Colonel Lane, and the second another trip made in the spring of 1876. We wish we could speak of it with more hearty praise, but we have been able to find in it very little that is fresh or valuable. In the first trip Dr. Merrill follows the lead of Burckhardt, Wetzstein, and especially Porter, and simply accepts without much critical examination their conclusions; and few things call for comment. Dr. Merrill follows Porter in making Salehad the Biblical Saleah, but the fact that the Arabic writers call it Sarchad throws some doubt on this identification. Bozrah is spoken of as "the seat of an archbishop." He was rather a metropolitan or "primate," as Porter calls him in his guide-book. Of the view from Siaghah, which Dr. Merrill's predecessor, Professor J. A. Paine, has identified with Pisgah, he says very depreciatingly: "The view of the Dead Sea from this peak is poor and disappointing compared with the magnificent view one has of it from Jebel Osha. From 'Siaghah' only a section of the western part is visible." This is an extremely strange statement on the face of it. Siaghah stands over the end of the Dead Sea and takes in the greater part of the northern portion as far south as Masada. Jebel Osha, or Ausha, overhangs the middle Jordan valley, against the Damieh ford, in the range of Nablous, twenty-five miles from the Dead Sea, and there is visible from it only a comparatively small portion of the northern end under Ras Feshklah, and only as a dim water surface blending in the haze over the sea, and extremely indistinct in the distance. If Dr. Merrill had ever visited Jebel Osha we do not see how he could have fallen into such an error. The "Wady Sur" (p. 15) of Dr. Merrill has nothing, as he imagines, to do with the castle of Sur near it, built by Hyrcanus, but is a quite different Arabic word, and should be written Wady Seir, or Saïr.

Dr. Merrill's second trip was made a year later, and more might properly be expected from it. But we are disappointed at the lack of discovery, and pained to notice the omission of credit which should be given to previous writers. On p. 75 he identifies Fik with Hippos. But no reason is given why the ordinary identification of Fik with Aphek and Husn with Hippos, as first made by Burckhardt, should not hold. Dr. Merrill's most successful study is of the hot springs of the Jordan valley. That at Mkaibeh appears to be new, as well as the beautiful lake Birket-el-Araies near it. The hot spring found near Fah'l seems to be also new, and the remarks about Herod's visit to the springs of Livia are sound. The most probable identification made is that of Miryamin with Jabesh Gilead. It is of the right distance from Pella, if Fah'l be Pella. Less happy seems to be the identification of Kurkama with Karkor; but Kurkama is only two miles from the Jordan, quite too near to account for the "security" of the remnant of the Midianite host. Josephus represents it as "a great way off" from the scene of Gideon's victory. We do not remember the statement which Dr. Merrill forgets the authority for,

(but says, "I think it is from Ptolemy"), that "the springs at Callirrhoe were often confounded with those at Libias." Ptolemy is an accessible writer, and only gives lists of towns with longitudes and latitudes. He gives these as distinct places ten miles apart. Dr. Merrill's geology is sadly at fault in what he has to say about the tells or mounds of the Jordan valley. "Some of these," he declares, "are artificial, beyond dispute." They are, however, mere littoral mounds, too abundant to furnish any temptation to make artificial ones. Warren found that to be the character of those which he opened near Jericho. The stones "which crop out of the ground here and there" upon them are generally mere burial-stones of the Arabs. The statement that there are no such mounds at the south end of the Dead Sea is without authority. Dr. Merrill's most valued identification appears to be that of Tell Ektanu with Zoar. Just where Tell Ektanu is we are not accurately told, only that it is "nearer the mountains of Moab than any of the others" of four *Tells*. This lack of exactness is a prevailing feature. The only reasons given for the identification are that it is almost one of the foot-hills, and that the word *Ektanu*, which "has no meaning in Arabic," "appears to be the Hebrew word *Katan*, which means *little* or *the little one*"—the well-known meaning of Zoar. We have examples of a translation of a name out of one language into another, as of Mahanaim into Parembok, and Capitollas into Er-Ras, but the exchange of one Hebrew name for another is not likely to have occurred, and no example of it is known. Besides, *Ektanu* and the Hebrew *Katan* have the same radical letters only in their English transcription, the *t* of *Ektanu* being *tav* and the *t* of *Katan* being *teih*—two letters which never interchange. The line of singular pits which Dr. Merrill hesitates about identifying with the "slime-pits" of Gen. xiv. 10, are doubtless modern, and it would take scarcely a century to fill them up. Geology is not one of the accomplishments of Dr. Merrill, otherwise he might have told us that the dolmens near Tell Ektanu are of a hard, ferruginous sandstone. His provoking inexactness of description is illustrated by his account of these dolmens, in which not one dimension or distance is given:

"Between Tell Ektanu and Tell-el-Hammam, and close to the foot of the mountains, there are some of the largest and finest dolmens that I have ever seen. The slabs of unhewn stone which cover them are in some cases of immense size. I counted upwards of fifteen of these, and where they were nearly perfect, the roof or cover slanted on two sides, so far as this could be with the materials used, and it appeared to me quite evident that the dolmens were the original of the sarcophagi with which the country abounds."

The conjecture as to the origin of the sarcophagi is new to us, but these dolmens do not appear to have been used for burial purposes, but for protection against sun and rain. They are rude shelters, consisting of two parallel slabs from eight to twelve feet long and four and a half high, and as far apart, closed at one end by a third stone, and covered by a fourth which projects considerably over the other three. They are generally open to the east, and they have a low, flat stone seat near the end furthest from the opening. They are found in clusters of a half-dozen or so in the Jordan valley, while on the eastern highlands they are sometimes found as many as a hundred and fifty together. They were first described by Irby and Mangles, and De Sauley has described and figured perhaps these very ones of which Dr. Merrill speaks—certainly some within a mile or two; while the English Consul Finn and Mrs. Beke have described others quite as fine on Jebel Ajlun. Dr. Merrill's heedlessness of geology appears in the next paragraph, in which he describes "an immense circular stone," such as Professor Paine has called "solar disks," and has conjectured to have been used in the worship of Baal. "The kind of stone," says Dr. Merrill, "is unlike any in the hills about, and I judge it must have been brought from the north." If he had told what kind of stone it is, we could have better judged of that point, for the hills about offer a very large assortment of rocks. On the hills within a mile or two of Tell Ektanu may be found limestone, both ordinary and silicious, chalk, gypsum, and alabaster, sandstone, ironstone, and black basalt, besides tufa on the plain, and calcareous conglomerate in the valleys. Those found by Professor Paine were of the silicious limestone of the region (in one case of sandstone), and this was doubtless hewn from the stone of the neighborhood.

This same tantalizing indefiniteness is found in Dr. Merrill's promised identifications, for which no evidence is offered, and no indication how far they are original. Thus, he merely says: "Ramothe Gilead, I think, can be identified beyond dispute with Jerash." It was so identified by Pachi, a Jewish writer of the fourteenth century. Ewald says it was in this vicinity, and Howard Crosby has put it here. But not one reason is

* Palestine Exploration Society. Fourth Statement. East of the Jordan. The Jordan Valley. The Cities of the Plain. New York. 1877.

given by Dr. Merrill for his identification, and no intimation that anybody else has done the same. Perhaps he did not know of it. Beeshterah, he adds, is the modern village of Bisherah, or Bish'rah. Now, Dr. Merrill mistakes the present name, which is not Bisherah, but Bethin, as Seetzen correctly calls it; and this was identified by Kruse, and afterwards by Ritter, with the Bathyra of Josephus, which it certainly is. But of their identification we have not a word, and no evidence is given to show that Beeshterah was in this vicinity. Where authorities are cited there seems to be very little added of value as the fruit of the hasty trip through the country. A considerable number of Greek and Latin inscriptions not in Waddington appear to have been collected, but these have not yet been published.

Altogether, the chief fruit of this expedition thus far appears to be the beautiful collection of large photographs taken at "Dozrah," Amman, Jerash, Kunawat, Um-el-Jemal (Beth-gamul?), Heshbon, Arak-el-Emir, and especially Meshita, the photographs of which are extremely fine, and show us the highly ornamented façade which Fergusson and Tristram call Persian, but which is more probably Byzantine. The titles accompanying the photographs are, we notice, in two or three cases disarranged. The archaeologist's report strangely omits all account of Meshita, a place of which we are very anxious to know more. The work undertaken by the American Palestine Exploration Society is an extremely important one; the field is rich beyond description in archaeological interest, and sure to yield abundant fruit to capable explorers. When the work of the society is resumed, it would be well to give almost exclusive attention to the making of a map of the country, which is an acquisition very much to be desired.

Notes on the Settlement and Indian Wars of the Western Parts of Virginia and Pennsylvania, from 1763 to 1783, inclusive. Together with a view of the state of society and manners of the first settlers of the Western country. By Joseph Doddridge. With a memoir of the author by his Daughter. Edited by Alfred Williams. (Albany, N. Y.: Joel Munsell. 1876. 12mo, pp. 331.)—Dr. Doddridge, the author of these notes, was born in Pennsylvania in 1769, and died in 1826; the reminiscences of the Indian wars between 1763 and 1783, therefore, rank as first-hand authority, not as being the narrative of an eye-witness, but as taken down by the author from the mouths of persons who themselves participated in them. The book is in every sense a valuable addition to Mr. Munsell's republications. There is, however, little incident except in the closing chapters (fifteen in number, with an appendix), which treat of the Indian

wars; in the other chapters the author puts down his recollections chiefly in the form of observations, describing in general terms the manners and customs of the time, the climate and productions of the country, and such other matters as impressed themselves upon his memory. Dr. Doddridge, an Episcopal clergyman, possessed considerable learning and a rather discursive turn of mind. The book contains, therefore, as is natural, considerable matter which was interesting enough at the time but is devoid of permanent value; for example, quite a long discussion upon the origin of the Indians, valuable to us only for such incidental bits of information as it imparts. For the rest, along with the detailed recital of Indian atrocities, the book contains enough examples of injustice and aggression on the part of the whites to show that we have but inherited our policy towards the Indians from our fathers. Testimony is given also to the savage punishments inflicted upon slaves in Maryland and Virginia.

The memoir by Miss Narcissa Doddridge gives an interesting sketch of the life of a pioneer clergyman in Western Virginia and Eastern Ohio.

A Practical Treatise on Water-Supply Engineering. By J. T. Manning, C.E. (New York: D. Van Nostrand. 8vo, pp. 619.)—This book is, as all practical hand-books must be, a compilation of scientific and practical discovery and experience in matters relating to its subject. Its range covers the whole field, and the treatment is classified under the following divisions: 1. Collection and storage of water, and its impurities; 2. Flow of water through sluices, pipes, and channels; 3. Practical construction of water-works. Each of these divisions of the subject is treated in an exhaustive manner, and the whole work is so fully illustrated, and so replete with tables and formulae, that it constitutes a valuable addition to the professional library. Indeed, it contains what one was hitherto obliged to seek through a mass of local reports, and to classify (and to qualify) with a judgment which beginners often lack. Its chief value is for those for whom it was especially written, namely, "those who have already had a task assigned them, and who, as commissioner, engineer, or assistant, are to proceed at once upon their reconnaissance and surveys, and the preparation of plans for a public water supply."

* Publishers will confer a favor by always marking the price of their books on the wrapper.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Price.
Four Impossibles: a Tale, swd.	K. Lorine, \$0.50
Jervis (J. B.), The Question of Labor and Capital,	G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1.25
Littre (E.), Supplément au Dictionnaire de la Langue Française, Part IV., swd.	F. W. Christern, 2.50
Proctor (R. A.), The Star Atlas, 5th ed.,	G. P. Putnam's Sons, 2.50
Thorpe (Prof. T. E.), Manual of Inorganic Chemistry, new ed.,	1.50

Leisure-Hour Series.

(15mo, \$1.25 each.)

RECENT VOLUMES.

VIRGIN SOIL. IN CHANGE UNCHANGED.
LOLA. POET AND MERCHANT.

HENRY HOLT & CO., New York.

DAVIS, BARDEEN & CO.,

Syracuse, N. Y., publish 'The Regents' Questions,' Beebe's 'First Steps with Figures,' Roe's 'A Work in Number,' De Graff's 'School-Room Guide,' Hoose's 'Studies in Articulation,' Frohisher's 'Good Selections for Reading,' Bardeen's 'Common-School Law,' Johannot's 'School-Houses,' Tillinghast's 'Diadem of School Songs,' De Graff's 'Institute Song Budget,' several 'School Records,' etc., etc.

Send two stamps for catalogue and specimen copy of the *School Bulletin*.

Continued from page iv.

New Jersey, Bordentown, 15 minutes from Trenton.
BORDENTOWN FEMALE COLLEGE.

on the Delaware River, between New York and Philadelphia. Superior facilities in Music and Art. Students can remain as boarders during vacations. Thorough instruction and a very pleasant home. For catalogue address Rev. Wm. C. BOWEN, A.M., President.

The college buildings stand upon a bluff of the Delaware, some sixty feet above the water, and have a landscape of remarkable picture-queens. They are supplied with hydrant water and heated by furnaces. The rooms are arranged with special reference to health and comfort. They are newly and expensively furnished—the ladies' rooms with sets of black walnut, or of chestnut trimmed with black walnut, spring beds, etc.; the chapel with walnut and ash furniture of the latest style. The halls and public rooms are lighted by gas. Conveniences are such that at no time are the ladies

necessarily exposed. The winters are mild and offer special inducement to those who cannot endure the rigors of a more northern climate. The grounds are well shaded and enclosed, and afford ample scope for recreation and exercise.

Of the many cares and responsibilities devolving upon parents and guardians, the means of obtaining a suitable education for those entrusted to their charge is one that requires discrimination and good judgment. Especially is this the case in regard to a daughter whose career in life has reached that point where a greater range of mental development and the acquisition of higher accomplishments are required. The Board recommend the more confidently the Institution under their supervision, assured that parents will find in its discipline and instruction what they want.

A prominent feature of the School is its home-like character. In their associations with the President and his family, and with the teachers, the students find sympathy and care like that of their own homes.

The number of boarders is limited to seventy. These, with the day pupils, make a very desirable school—not too large for proper personal attention to the interest of each student, nor so small as to lose the stimulus of numbers.

It is the aim of the authorities of the institution to merit patronage by observing the following measures:

To provide a comfortable and pleasant home.

To exercise parental care for the health, manners, and religious culture of the young ladies.

To teach nothing directly or indirectly that will need to be unlearned.

To exercise that kind of discipline which is corrective and at the same time ennobling, and which will secure the respect and esteem of the student.

Commendation for well-doing, rather than censure for wrongdoing, is oftener resorted to, to secure lady-like deportment and proper attention to wholesome rules. No demerits are given. Quarterly reports are sent to parents or guardians.

The Collegiate year commences September 12 and closes June 19.

A patron, writing to the President, says: "I take great pleasure in commending your school for the thorough instruction given; for the excellent order maintained, without the slightest harshness or the galling machinery of many rules; for the pleasant relations cultivated between officers and pupils; and, most of all, for the admirable Christian family influences which seem to abound. I hope, both for their sakes and yours, that you may have many pupils during the coming year."

ARTHUR CROSBY, "Pastor Second Pres. Church, Brooklyn."

NEW JERSEY, Burlington.
ST. MARY'S HALL.—Rf. of N. J. Visitor.
—\$350 per annum. Address the Rev. E. K. SMITH, Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Elizabeth, 221 South Broad Street.
MISS FANNY'S BOARDING and DAY
School for Young Ladies will be reopened on Wednesday, September 19.

NEW JERSEY, Freehold.
FREEHOLD INSTITUTE.—Boarding
School for Boys. Rev. A. G. CHAMBERS, Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Lawrenceville.
CLASSICAL AND COMMERCIAL HIGH
School. H. & S. M. HAMILL. Next school year begins 11th
of Sept., 1877.

NEW JERSEY, Montclair.
YOUNG LADIES' SEMINARY.—Fine,
healthy location on Orange Mountain. A few young ladies
may this fall be received into the family, who will receive board-
ing care and thorough instruction. The second year will commence
Sept. 17. Address Mrs. MARY JAMES MORRISON, Principal.

NEW JERSEY, Morristown.
MISS E. ELIZABETH DANA having re-
moved her French and English Boarding-school for young
ladies from Delhi's Ferry, on the Hudson, to Morristown, N. J.,
will reopen on Wednesday, Sept. 12.
Terms, for board and tuition in English, French, and Latin, \$350
per annum.

NEW JERSEY, Morristown.
MORRISTOWN BOARDING-SCHOOL for
Boys (30 miles from N. Y.) Rev. S. N. HOWELL, A.M.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.
MRS. M. S. PARK'S FAMILY AND DAY
School for Young Ladies and Little Girls reopens Sept. 19.

NEW JERSEY, New Brunswick.
RUTGERS GRAMMAR SCHOOL.—108th
year begins Sept. 12. Sends 30 boys a year to college. Pre-
pares for college, scientific school, or business. Twenty boarders.
Rev. D. T. RILEY, Rector.

NEW JERSEY, Passaic, 11 miles from New York, on Erie R.R.
CLASSICAL SCHOOL for Boys of all ages.—
Moderate prices; healthy situation. Opens Sept. 4. Cata-
logues on application. CHAS. W. STICKLE, A.M.

NEW YORK, Albany.
ST. AGNES SCHOOL, under direction of Rt.
Rev. W. C. DOANE. Circulars sent on application.

NEW YORK, Batavia.
MRS. W. G. BRYAN'S Boarding-School for
Young Ladies.

NEW YORK, Binghamton.
BINGHAMTON COLLEGE and Conservatory of Music for Young Ladies. \$200 to \$300. Doubled its numbers last year. Department of Bible study and Bible work FREE.
REV. R. A. PATTERSON, A.M., President.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn, 119 and 141 South Oxford Street.
LOUKWOOD'S ACADEMY, for both sexes.
Reopens September 11, 1877.

NEW YORK, Brooklyn.
PICKER COLLEGIATE INSTITUTE.—The thirty-first year will begin Sept. 12, 1877. The institution is furnished with complete and extensive apparatus in every department, as well for instruction in Music, Painting, and the Languages as in the regular course. Pupils from abroad will find a pleasant home in the family connected with the Institute. For circulars apply to A. CRUTCHFIELD, Principal.

NEW YORK, Clinton, Otsego Co.
THURGOOD SEMINARY, for Young Ladies.
Send for circular to BENJAMIN W. DWIGHT.

NEW YORK, Havana, Schuyler Co.
COOK ACADEMY.—Certificate of Principal admits to Vassar College without examination. Expenses, \$200 per year. Fall term begins Sept. 3.
Address: A. C. WINTERS, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Kinderhook.
KINDERHOOK ACADEMY.—Fits for the best colleges and scientific schools. Commences Sept. 6. GEORGE H. TAYLOR, A.M., Principal; eight years Classical Instructor, Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass.

NEW YORK, Mt. Morris.
JANE GREY SCHOOL, Diocesan Seminary.
Opens Sept. 12. Rev. J. LINDLEY, Principal.

NEW YORK, Newburgh.
HARRY W. SUGARS' Boarding School will reopen Sept. 11. Preparation of boys for College a specialty; boys under 14 years of age preferred. For circulars address the Principal.

NEW YORK, Newburgh.
MISS F. J. MCKIE'S Family School for Young Ladies and Children reopens Sept. 19. Careful elementary training; the best facilities for languages and music.

NEW YORK, North Granville.
GRANVILLE MILITARY ACADEMY.—Successor to Stamford Institute. Healthiest climate, elegant building, clean heat, cheerful home, no temptations. Earnest work for boys fitting for college, science or business. Twenty-eighth year begins Sept. 11. Send for Catalogue to WALLACE C. WILCOX, A.M., President.

NEW YORK, Oneida, Madison Co.
DE LANCEY SCHOOL, for Young Ladies and Children. The Rev. GEORGE P. HUBBARD, Rector; Miss L. M. MARSH, Principal. The fourth year begins September 14, 1877. For circulars address the Rector or Principal.

NEW YORK, Peekskill.
PEEKSKILL MILITARY ACADEMY.—Opens September 12. Send for circular.

NEW YORK, Pelham Manor.
PELHAM MANOR SCHOOL.—in the new and picturesque suburb of New York, Pelham Manor—will open Sept. 20. English, Classics, German, French, Drawing, Painting, and Music. The most thorough preparation for college, and excellent home advantages for family pupils. References: Prof. Mitchell and President Raymond of Vassar College, ex-President Cummings of Wesleyan University, and others. Address for circulars, etc., G. A. PERRY, A.M.

NEW YORK, Port Chester, Westchester Co.
A BOARDING-SCHOOL for 25 Boys.—O. WINTHROP STARR, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.
POUGHKEEPSIE FEMALE ACADEMY.
Rev. D. G. WRIGHT, Rector.
A first-class school in every respect. The teachers in the several departments are accomplished and experienced. The facilities for a thorough and finished education are second to none, while no effort is spared to make this a refined, Christian, and happy home for pupils.
For circulars containing terms, references, etc., please address the Rector, Poughkeepsie, N. Y.

NEW YORK, Poughkeepsie.
VASSAR COLLEGE.—Fall Session opens September 10, 1877.
Entrance examinations September 10, 20, and 21.
Catalogues, with full particulars, may be had of the undersigned.
The Department of Music, Drawing, and Painting will be open hereafter as a school for special instruction in those arts.
For circular containing full information apply to
W. L. DEAN, Registrar.

NEW YORK, Rhinebeck.
DE GARMO INSTITUTE.—A first-class school, at reasonable rates, for both sexes. For particulars address the Principal, JAMES M. DE GARMO.

NEW YORK, Rye, Westchester Co.
PARK INSTITUTE.—For Boys. Reopens Sept. 11. HENRY TATLOCK, A.M., Principal.
Fifteen acceptable boys are admitted to reside with the Principal. Terms, \$500 a year. See Nation, No. 631.

NEW YORK, Rye, Westchester Co.
RYE SEMINARY for YOUNG LADIES.
—Address Mrs. S. J. LEE.

NEW YORK, Saugerties-on-Hudson.
KEANSARGE SCHOOL FOR BOYS.
FREDERICK THOMPSON, Principal.

NEW YORK, Sing Sing.
OSSINGTON INSTITUTE for Young Ladies will reopen Sept. 18.
Regular collegiate course. Languages, Music, and Painting. Terms moderate.
For circular address Miss S. M. VAN VLECK.

NEW YORK, Suspension Bridge.
DE VEAUX COLLEGE.—Prepares for the Universities, etc. Terms \$400 per annum. 20 Foundation scholarships. Rev. GEO. HERBERT PATTERSON, President.

NEW YORK, Syracuse.
KERLE SCHOOL, for Girls, under the supervision of the Rt. Rev. F. D. Huntington, S.T.D., Bishop of Central New York. The first term of the seventh year will begin September 12, 1877. For circulars address MARY J. JACKSON.

NEW YORK, Syracuse, Olive, cor. Wallace Streets.
SYRACUSE CLASSICAL SCHOOL.—Classics, modern languages, and English thoroughly taught to both sexes. W. C. GINN, A.M., Principal.

NEW YORK, Tarrytown, Main Street, next door to the National Bank.
MISS M. DONALD, of 788 Broadway, New York, will teach Drawing and Water-Colors from Nature in Tarrytown during the summer. Terms \$20 for twenty lessons of one hour each at the pupil's residence; \$20 for twenty lessons at Miss McDonald's rooms. Payable in advance. A reduction will be made for classes.

NEW YORK, Tion-ton-on-the-Hudson.
TRINITY SCHOOL.—Healthful location; home comforts; thorough training; assiduous care of health, manners, and morals; bad boys excluded. For catalogue address the Rev. JAMES STARR CLARK, D.D., Rector.

NEW YORK, Troy.
RENSSELAER POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE. A School of Civil Engineering.

NEW YORK, Unionville, Orange Co.
FAMILY SCHOOL for BOYS.—Offers a safe and pleasant home and thorough preparation for any college or for business. S. S. HARTWELL, A.M.

NEW YORK, Utica.
MRS. PIATT'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies.
—Fall term begins Sept. 17.

NEW YORK, Utica.
UTICA SCHOOL for Young Ladies.—Fall term begins September 18. Mrs. PIATT, late of Norwich, Conn., Principal.

NEW YORK, White Plains, Westchester Co.
ALEXANDER INSTITUTE.—Military Boarding-School. Principal, O. R. WILLIS, Ph.D.

OHIO, Cincinnati.
COLLEGIATE SCHOOL fits thoroughly for Yale and Harvard. Modern languages. Home comforts combined with school discipline.
E. F. BLISS, A.M., Principal.
Rev. J. BABIN, A.B.,

OHIO, Cincinnati.
WESLEYAN FEMALE COLLEGE.—Best advantages in Literature, Science, Languages, Painting, and Music.
Rev. DAVID H. MOORE, D.D., President.

OHIO, Yellow Springs, Greene Co.
ANTIOCH COLLEGE, embracing College, High School, and Free Normal School. Opens the fall term September 12, 1877. Address S. C. DERRY, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Andalusia, Bucks Co.
POTTER HALL.—A Home Boarding School for Little Boys, on New York Division of Pennsylvania Railroad, two and a half hours from New York.
Location delightful and healthful.
Doctor's bill, only two dollars for entire school for the year ending June, 77.
Charges moderate.
Next terms begins September 10.
A. N. ARMS, Jr., Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Bethlehem.
LEHIGH UNIVERSITY.—Tuition free.
Civil, Mechanical, and Mining Engineering; Chemistry and Metallurgy; full Classical Instruction; French and German; English Literature; International and Constitutional Law; Psychology and Christian Evidences.
For registers address
The Rev. JOHN M. LEAVITT, D.D., President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Chester.
PENNSYLVANIA MILITARY ACADEMY opens September 12.
Location healthful; grounds ample; buildings commodious. Thorough instruction in Civil Engineering, the Classics, and English.
Careful supervision of Cadets.
For circulars apply to Col. THEO. HYATT, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, Downingtown, Chester Co.
M. B. THOMAS SISTERS.—formerly Mary B. Thomas & Sisters', School. The fall term will begin 17th, ninth mo. (Sept.), 1877.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown.
GERMANTOWN ACADEMY will commence its 11th school year Sept. 10, 1877, under entirely new management, the following officers having been elected by the Board of Trustees:
WM. KERSHAW, A.M., Principal;
M. C. KIMBER, Vice-Principal.
Every exertion will be made to restore the former high standard and reputation of the Academy, and to render it in all respects a thorough training school for our best colleges and universities.
Applications to be addressed to WM. KERSHAW, Principal, Apsley Street, Germantown.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown.
MADAME CLEMENT'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies and Children.—Established in 1857. The Fall Session will begin on Wednesday, Sept. 19. For circulars apply to the Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Germantown, West Chelton Avenue, below Wayne Street.
MISS MARY E. STEVENS'S, formerly Miss Mary E. Aertsen and Miss Mary E. Stevens's, School for Young Ladies, will reopen Sept. 19, 1877. Scholars prepared for the Harvard Examinations for Women.

PENNSYLVANIA, Haverford College P. O.
Haverford COLLEGE, under the care of the Society of Friends (Orthodox). THOS. CHASE, A.M., Pres. For catalogues address Prof. S. ALSON, Jr.

PENNSYLVANIA, Media, Delaware Co., thirteen miles from Philadelphia.
BROOKE HALL Female Seminary opens September 17.
For catalogues apply to M. L. EASTMAN, Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Media.
\$65 PER QUARTER (no extra charges) for Young Men and Boys, at Shortridge's Media Academy. Ten instructors—two graduates of Yale College. Special individual instruction for both advanced and backward pupils. Recommended by Mr. Bayard Taylor, Judge Van Housen, and others. Open all summer. Media has seven churches and a temperance charter. Address
S. C. SHORTIDGE (Harvard A.M.), Media, Pa.

PENNSYLVANIA, Mt. Pleasant.
WEST PENNA. CLASSICAL and SCIENTIFIC Institute. For both sexes. New building for ladies. Open grate in each room. Address JONATHAN JONES A.M.

PENNSYLVANIA, Nazareth, Northampton Co.
NAZARETH HALL.—Boarding-School for Boys.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1527 and 1529 Spruce Street.
CHEGARAY INSTITUTE (Founded 1814), for Young Ladies and Misses, reopens September 20. Board and tuition in Latin, English, and French, per annum, \$400. French is the language of the family. Madame D'HERVELLY Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1350 Pine Street.
MISS ANABLE'S BOARDING and DAY School will reopen Sept. 19.

PENNSYLVANIA, Philadelphia, 1327 Spruce Street.
SCHOOL OF VOCAL ART, under the direction of Madam E. SEILER, author of 'The Voice in Singing' and 'The Voice in Speaking,' will be reopened for the season of 1877 and 1878 on the 24th of September. For circulars apply, or address as above.

PENNSYLVANIA, Pottstown, Montgomery Co.
COTTAGE SEMINARY for Young Ladies.—The twenty-eighth annual session begins on the 13th Sept., 1877. For catalogues, apply to GEO. G. BUTLER, A.M., Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Pottstown, Montgomery Co.
"THE HILL" SCHOOL.—Preparatory to College and University. Twenty-seventh year begins Sept. 12. Superior location, equipment, library, gymnasium. Careful supervision and home culture. Designed to give thorough and critical preparation for college. References: President Porter, Yale College; President Cattell, Lafayette; President McCosh, Princeton; Justice Strong, U. S. Supreme Court.
JOHN MEIGS, Ph.D., Principal.

PENNSYLVANIA, Swarthmore, Delaware Co., 10 miles from Philadelphia.
SWARTHMORE COLLEGE, under care of Friends, gives a thorough collegiate education to both sexes, who pursue the same courses of study and receive in same degrees. Total expenses, including tuition, board, washing, use of books, etc., \$350 a year. No extra charges. For catalogue giving full particulars as to courses of study, etc., address
EDWARD H. MAGILL, President.

PENNSYLVANIA, West Chester.
MISS SMITH'S SCHOOL for Young Ladies reopens Sept. 19. Eight young ladies will be received into the family. Address P. FRAZER SMITH.

TEXAS, Henderson.
HENDERSON COLLEGE.—Gentlemen in the Southwest who desire to have their sons thoroughly educated, or prepared for any of the Eastern universities, should address OSCAR H. COOPER, B.A. (Yale), Principal.

VERMONT, Bellows Falls.
ST. AGNE'S HALL.—A Church School for Girls. Miss JANE HARGOOD, Principal. See Nation, No. 632.

VIRGINIA, Botetourt Springs.
HOLINS INSTITUTE, in the mountains of Southwest Virginia, is the most extensively equipped School for Girls and Young Ladies in the State. Its Faculty is able and numerous. The ensuing session will open on the 19th of September. Apply for catalogues to CHAS. L. COCKE, Sup't.

VIRGINIA, Lexington.
WASHINGTON & LEE UNIVERSITY.
Gen. G. W. C. LEE, President.—Full courses of instruction in Classical, Literary, and Scientific studies, and in the Professional departments of Law and of Civil Engineering.
The next session will open September 20 and close June 26. Total expenses, exclusive of books and clothing, need not exceed \$275; by mesage, they may be reduced to \$200 or \$220.
For full information by catalogue or circular, address
WALTER BOWIE, Clerk of Faculty.

VIRGINIA, Salem, Roanoke Co. (in the Mountains).
ROANOKE COLLEGE.—Expenses for 9½ mos., \$150 to \$240. College prosperous. For catalogue address Secretary of Faculty.

